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OF THE NATIONAL ASSOCIATION
OF SECONDARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS

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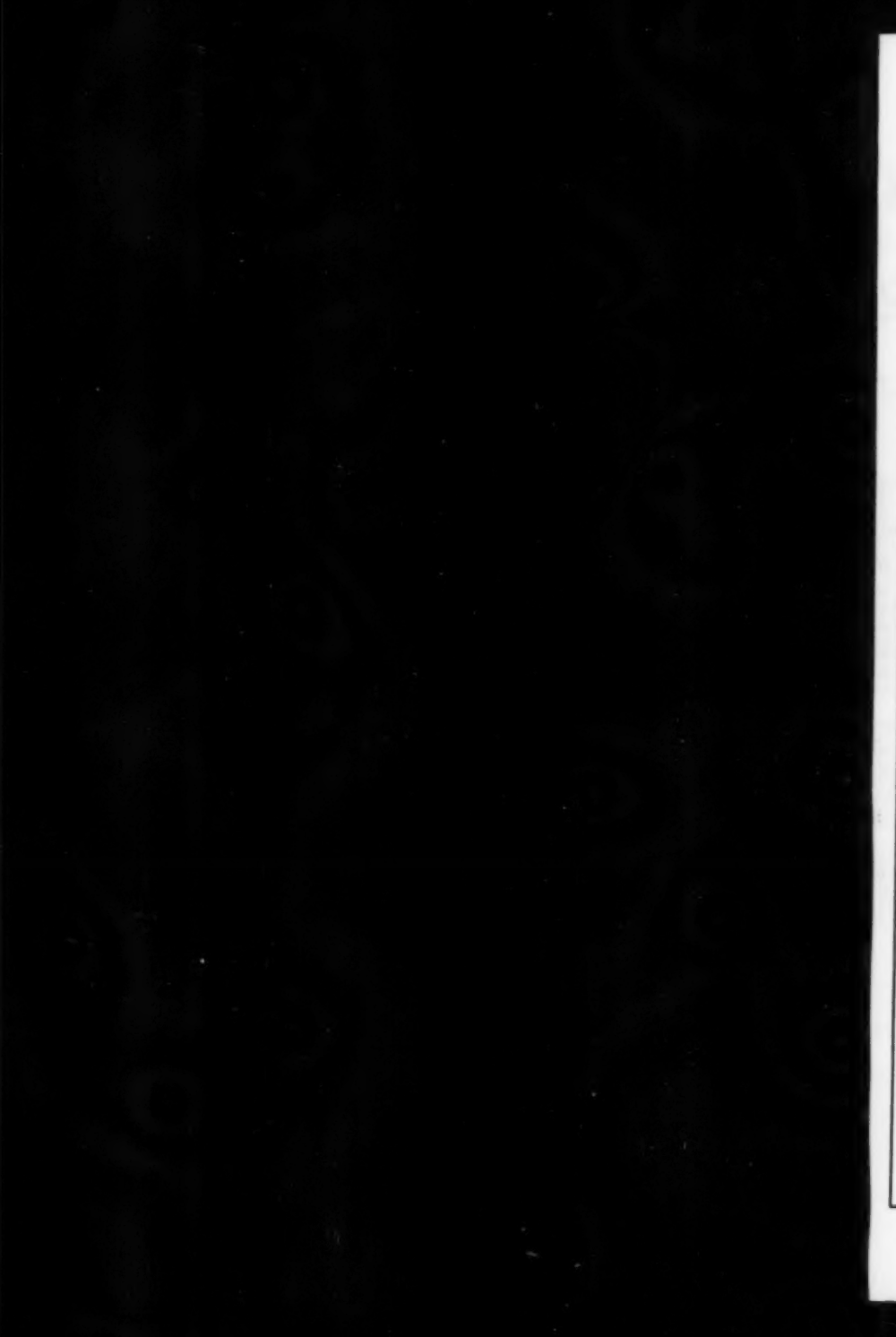
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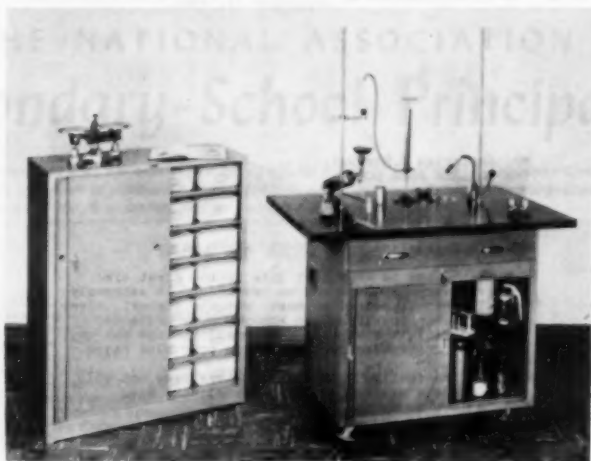
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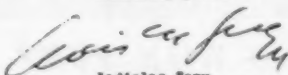
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OF THE NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF Secondary-School Principals

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Twelve Years of NATO

PAUL-HENRI SPAAK

THIS April, NATO, the North Atlantic Treaty Organization, rounds out its twelfth year. Why was it necessary in April 1949, a relatively short time after the end of a victorious war, for the Allies to band together in a defensive alliance?

When the war ended, the democracies who were allied with the Russians in war hoped to continue working with them in the interests of peace. But the USSR had other ideas. Instead, the Russians set about a deliberate, cold-blooded campaign of threats and subversion in order to establish their dominion over Central and Eastern Europe.

Even before the war ended, the Russians had a firm foothold in the areas they had occupied: Estonia, Latvia, and Lithuania, chunks of Finland, Poland, Czechoslovakia, Rumania, and Germany. In 1945 they stirred up mischief in the civil war in Greece. Wherever the presence of the Red Army enabled the Russians to apply direct pressure, they insisted upon Communists participating in "popular front" governments, although the first post-war elections had everywhere shown that the Communists represented only a minority.

The pressure was increased, slowly but surely, during 1946. In 1947 the movement gathered speed. The Communists grabbed power in Hungary, after forcing the resignation of the Government; in Bulgaria, the leader of the opposition was hanged; in Rumania, the leader of the peasant party was condemned to life imprisonment; in Poland, the leader of the peasant opposition had to flee to the West. There remained Czechoslovakia, where the régime, though democratic, maintained friendly relations with the USSR. In February 1948, however, the scheme devised by the Soviet Ambassador Zorin, brought about the capitulation of President Benes, who handed over power to the Communists.

USSR PREPARES NEW CONQUESTS

While these machinations were being carried out, the USSR was counting on new conquests. The Comintern, dissolved during the war, was resuscitated in October 1947, under the name of Cominform. Its boldly announced object: to fight and destroy Western political régimes. On the diplomatic level, the Soviets simultaneously sealed the complete solidarity of the Communist bloc with a network of alliances between themselves and their satellites: 23 bilateral treaties were signed between 1945 and 1948.

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The *coup d'état* in Czechoslovakia and the Berlin blockade destroyed any illusions or hopes the West may have had. By 1948, half of Europe, composed of countries close to us by virtue of their civilization and history, had fallen into slavery.

This, then, was the situation in 1948. What were the conditions which permitted it to come about? How did liberty and security come to be faced with so deadly a threat so soon after a war waged in the name of those very principles which should have guaranteed their survival?

After the war, the Soviet Union kept its massive military force mobilized and pushed it to the very heart of the Continent. At the same time, she exercised unlimited authority over her satellites, thanks to the overwhelming superiority of her forces and the complete political and ideological solidarity of the Soviet bloc.

On the other side was the West, which had been hastily disarming since the surrender of 1945. The European countries were absorbed in the arduous task of reconstruction. They were struggling against economic difficulties and their strength was often sapped by the Communist parties. Their only bond was a moral one. Furthermore, they were exposed to all the risks inherent in a democratic form of government.

LIBERTY AND SECURITY

By now, the West accepted the fact that liberty and security meant one thing to the Soviets and another to the West. The Russians could only conceive of liberty in the interests of Communism and its agents. Security to them meant dividing and weakening just those people they most threatened.

The peoples of the West were becoming increasingly nervous as time went on. Now they were seriously frightened. Was the free world to sink before the onrushing Red tide for lack of effective defense? At the General Assembly of the United Nations in 1948, I expressed this fear on behalf of my country and, I believe, of many others who were weak and disarmed. It was a justified fear, and in no way humiliating, since it was the starting point for determined action. Action could mean but one thing—we must unite and pool our resources and energies. This was the only way to alter a situation which was likely to prove dangerously tempting to the united and strongly armed Soviet camp, and to discourage and demoralize the disorganized and practically disarmed Western camp.

In an attempt to face this situation, the United Kingdom, France, Belgium, Netherlands, and Luxembourg signed the Brussels Treaty on March 17, 1948. These five countries created a defensive alliance and agreed to coordinate the organization of their forces in order to establish a common front in the event of aggression. There was something moving but, also, something almost pitiful in this alliance between countries which had emerged exhausted from a ruthless war and which had, to a great extent, dismantled their military apparatus. Nobody could reasonably believe that the new allies alone would be capable of setting up an effec-

tive bulwark against a possible attack by the Soviet Union which maintained 200 divisions on a war footing.

A FORMIDABLE DISPROPORTION

This disproportion in forces was a formidable one. There was only one world power whose cooperation in the defense of free Europe could compensate for this crippling disparity in forces: the United States. Her vast industrial potential and financial resources, and her possession of the atom bomb, of which she still held the monopoly, meant that she alone was in a position to redress the balance which had been so tragically lost. Europe, in order to defend herself, had therefore to ally herself with the United States.

The citizens of the United States felt their responsibility towards the free world. After the brief period of enchantment following victory, the Americans faced up resolutely to Russian political maneuvers. From 1947, aid to Greece and Turkey, followed by the vast undertaking of the Marshall Plan, made a decisive contribution to Western recovery. The United States had actively encouraged the negotiations which led to the Brussels Treaty. Then, on the day on which the treaty was signed, the United States promised to support the five signatories in their mutual defense effort.

But this was not enough. More had to be done. It was necessary to bring about closer relations between free Europe and the United States, permit the fullest possible collaboration between the partners, and to set up a common defense system. This could only be achieved through a treaty of alliance. But a treaty of this kind implied what amounted to a revolution in American diplomacy. George Washington in his farewell address advised his co-citizens to keep well away from European affairs and not to make any agreements with the countries on the continent. This tenet is so firmly rooted in the public conscience of the United States that during the First World War they did not declare themselves the "allies" of the Entente, but only the "associates." The question now was: would they agree in peacetime to ally themselves with Europe?

THE VANDENBERG RESOLUTION

The United States Senate, jealous guardian of the principles governing American foreign policy, faced the urgency of the situation. On June 11, 1948, by 64 votes to 4, it adopted a resolution sponsored by Senator Vandenberg. This authorized the United States government to associate itself with mutual defense agreements if these contributed to the security of the United States. The way was clear for negotiations. They started immediately between the five Brussels allies and the United States and Canada, while Italy, Iceland, Denmark, Norway, and Portugal, conscious of the Russian threat, also took part in the conversations. Thus on April 4, 1949, the North Atlantic Treaty, creating the most extensive and most powerful defensive alliance ever to exist in peacetime, was signed in Washington. The Atlantic Alliance had come into being.

The elementary principle on which this Atlantic Alliance is based underlies the whole of society. This principle is the incontestable right of self-defense. Since it does not seem possible in the international field to rely on the police or the law courts, this right can only be effectively exercised by collective action guaranteed by a treaty of mutual assistance and organized in advance. The Charter of the United Nations expressly sanctions the right to "individual or collective self-defense if an armed attack occurs." Naturally, the governments which negotiated the North Atlantic Treaty wished to give their countries the best chance of successfully resisting a possible aggressor, and of finally defeating him. But their highest aim was, by declaring their common purpose, actually to prevent aggression.

HOW NATO PREVENTS AGGRESSION

First of all, the point at which hostile action would provoke a collective reaction is laid down. The essential point about this is that no doubt can exist as to the obligations of each member state. These are laid down by Article Five of the Treaty, according to which the parties agree "that an armed attack against one or more of them in Europe or North America shall be considered an attack against them all" and that "if such an armed attack occurs, each of them . . . will assist the Party or Parties so attacked by taking forthwith, individually and in concert with the other Parties, such action as it deems necessary, including the use of armed force."

Unfortunately, however, the Alliance could not derive sufficient preventive powers from this mutual assistance clause. In view of the disparity between our forces and those of the USSR in 1949, a declaration of solidarity was not enough to deter a potential aggressor; he would probably not have considered the price too high. We had, therefore, to replace the mere desire for collective defense with deeds. In other words, we had to set up the required force and define a common strategy.

THE URGENT TASK

First and most urgent task of the Alliance was, therefore, to build up its defenses. This process was an essential part of its evolution toward what is today not merely a classic alliance, but a real community served by permanent organs which prepare and discuss collective action, and which constitute the North Atlantic Treaty Organization.

The North Atlantic Council, the supreme organ of NATO, composed of the Foreign Ministers of the member countries, should, according to Article Nine, "consider matters concerning the implementation of this Treaty"; that is, it must ceaselessly adapt the action and resources of the member countries to the Soviet threat. The Council had therefore to create specialized agencies to work out a common defense system.

The Council's first job was to evaluate Soviet military strength, and then, on the basis of this evaluation, to establish a common strategy, a

plan of the forces required, and a coordinated military production program. It was up to the governments of the member countries to put the plans into effect.

The common strategy to be pursued was plain—the NATO countries had to be defended along the line of the Iron Curtain itself. For obvious moral reasons there could be no question of surrendering part of an ally's territory and population. For military reasons, it was equally imperative not to fall back westwards and thereby reduce yet further the already dangerously limited depth of our defense area.

THE SHIELD

The "shield" forces, which were to defend the Alliance along its frontiers, were supported by another all-important element in Western strategy—atomic weapons. Carried by the US Strategic Air Command and the RAF Bomber Command, these constituted both a compelling argument against aggression (the "deterrent") and a potential means of reprisal.

If the "shield" forces were to be effective, however, they must be based on strength. They needed far more than the fourteen divisions which they comprised in 1950, as against the 200 odd Soviet divisions. However, a whole series of difficulties had to be overcome before the necessary forces could be raised.

Rearmament is costly, and when NATO's military authorities had made an evaluation of the forces considered necessary to provide an efficient "shield," and to common defense in general, it appeared that it would be difficult to carry out their recommendations without endangering the economic and financial stability of member countries. The principle of mutual assistance written into the Treaty had, by 1950, been put into effect through a program of military and financial aid laid down in a series of agreements between the United States and their European partners. This assistance, generous as it was, could not provide more than a partial solution.

It would have been unrealistic and dangerous to sacrifice the economy to rearmament. Inflation and social disorder would immediately have undermined the very basis of the military effort. More serious still, it would have encouraged the spread of Communism.

The Alliance, therefore, sought for the solution which would best harmonize defense requirements with those of the economy. Thus it was that the defense plans adopted in 1952 at the NATO Lisbon Conference were made. The methods which were then perfected for formulating such plans have since been applied permanently. They aim at coordinating defense efforts in order to render them more efficient and less costly, as well as adapting them to changing conditions. They also help to harmonize the programs with the resources of individual members and to distribute the burdens equally.

EXTENSION OF THE DEFENSE SYSTEM

NATO's military strategy also created a political problem. In view of the effort which was required, it was essential that all the peoples covered by the "shield" forces should participate in the common defense system: a means therefore had to be found of associating Western Germany with the Atlantic Treaty partners. This question was put to the Atlantic Council in November 1950, after the Communist aggression in Korea. It was only solved by the actual entry of the Federal German Republic into the Alliance five years later.

In the meantime, the accession, in 1952, of Greece and Turkey to NATO extended the frontiers of our defense system to the Caucasus.

The broad lines of NATO defense policy were developing. As now laid down, it can be stated very simply. In order to achieve our principal objective, that of deterring the potential aggressor, we do not aim at achieving complete parity with the adversary's forces. It is enough for us to have at our disposal sufficient means of reprisal for the price of aggression to become exorbitant.

Thus it has been possible to set up an effective "shield" with far fewer forces than those which we face. Our numerical inferiority is proof of the purely defensive nature of Atlantic strategy. But this numerical inferiority does not diminish our capacity to react. The tactical nuclear arms with which the "shield" forces of SHAPE are being increasingly equipped greatly improve their ability both to defend our territory and to give warning of aggression. As for strategic nuclear arms, whether delivered by planes or by rockets, they constitute a "deterrent" par excellence and are, therefore, vital to our security.

THE BALANCE OF TERROR

Since the formation of NATO, the "shield" forces, together with the strategic nuclear arms which form the "deterrent," have ensured peace for the West. There is too great a disparity, it is true, between the NATO forces and those of the adversary, and a considerable effort is still needed to bring our defenses up to a satisfactory level, to correct the balance. Because this balance—such as it is—depends primarily on nuclear arms, it has been called the "balance of terror." Obviously, this is not the ideal balance. But it is better to have this—the only balance we can hope to achieve at present—than no balance at all.

Those in the West who, in all good faith, call for the abolition of nuclear weapons outside the framework of an effectively controlled and balanced disarmament, and who would thus deny the "shield" forces their indispensable tactical nuclear arms, should reflect well upon the consequences of what they propose. If there were no nuclear weapons, what weight could the divisions of the "shield" forces hope to carry compared with a Soviet force at least four or five times larger? Would peace be better guaranteed and the West better preserved from Soviet pressure? On the contrary; we should once again be faced with the alternatives of capitulation or war—a war which the West would not have one chance in a million of winning.

The Future of Vocational and Technical Education

WILLIAM P. McLURE

BY DEFINITION I am restricting the word "vocational" to formal instruction at the high-school level which concentrates on the development of knowledge, skills, and attitudes of the student for pursuit in a particular occupation or group of related occupations. I do not want to engage in a semantic quarrel about precise lines to be drawn between the vocational and the non-vocational work.

I cannot discuss what I have in mind within the present terminology of vocational work. Such titles as business English, commercial typing, shop mathematics, or even the subjects approved for special state or Federal reimbursement do not provide an adequate basis for this communication.

I should like to state a general definition of vocational education in the high school as the beginning of specialization in the eleventh and twelfth grades of study in particular occupations or in related groups of occupations. In my opinion, there is very little, if any, work below the eleventh grade which should be specialized and oriented toward preparation of the student for a particular occupational pursuit. Whatever choices in subjects and modifications in instruction are made below this level, the nature of the work should be designed more to contribute to the general development of the individual in basic fields of knowledge than to occupational specialization with the commitment that accompanies occupational choice.

The term technical education is restricted to occupational instruction at the post-high-school level. Two years of full-time study beyond high school are required for completion of most technical curricula. From four to six years are required to complete most of these curricula on a part-time basis. It may be that the length of preparation for some of these curricula will be extended in the future to three or even four years.

These two levels of education are closely related, and whatever is done or not done at one level affects the other. There are some forces which are changing the purpose of this entire range of education. A few of these are mentioned for their implications before comments are made on each level.

William P. McLure is Director of the Bureau of Educational Research and Professor of Education, University of Illinois, College of Education, Urbana, Illinois. This paper was presented at the Conference of the Illinois High School Principal's Association, October 4, 1960. For a comprehensive treatment of this subject see William P. McLure and others, *Vocational and Technical Education in Illinois*, Bureau of Educational Research, University of Illinois, for the Office of Superintendent of Public Instruction, Springfield, Ill., 1960.

We cannot plan, and plan we must, the future developments in vocational and technical education without correctly assessing the social and economic trends. We must understand the nature of increased technology, the implications of greater mechanization and automation. Likewise, we must understand the implications of expanding economic activity, increasing output per worker, increasing population, and the changing composition in the pattern of employment.

For example, we are now in the midst of a mild revolution in the composition of the labor force. The professional and technical fields will need a 50 per cent increase in personnel within the next ten years. Substantial increases of educated workers will be needed in a number of other fields, whereas farming will require 20 per cent fewer workers.

The economists keep us informed on current fluctuations and long-term trends in the economy. They cite statistics on changes in inventories, surpluses of products, capital investment, income and levels of consumption. We hear too little about the human variables of change: (1) the nature of shortages of manpower; (2) the number of people who need re-education for effective work because of technological change; (3) the effect of economic dislocation, or the threat of dislocation, on the buying habits of the consumer; and (4) perhaps most important of all, the potential increase in the consumptive level of our nation if the millions of workers now employed below the level of their capacity were educated for more effective production at higher incomes.

The mobility of the population is an outstanding phenomenon to be considered, especially in conjunction with the changing demographic face of America. We scarcely understand the educational implications of the increasing urbanization, centralization of business and industry, and the reconstruction of community life that is in full swing at the present time.

In nearly every state there is today a clustering of population which makes most of our earlier conceptions of organization of education at the high-school and post-high-school levels out of date. For example, in Illinois there are a dozen cities of which 85 per cent of the population resides within a forty-mile commuting distance. This simple fact, coupled with modern means of communication and transportation, has far-reaching implications for the provision of vocational and technical education.

The increasing complexity of the occupational world is a phenomenon which has a great influence in shaping the future of vocational and technical education. Specialization continues to grow at an unslackened pace, accompanied by the ubiquitous need of general knowledge and skill. The problem would be much simpler if it were one of mere diversity, but it is immeasurably complicated by the speed of change and the fast rate of obsolescence in skills, ideas, and machines.

Our educational system has not been fully geared up with adequate resources to cope with the present combination of social, economic, and other cultural variables in the world. Assuming a peaceful existence of nations, there is no evidence of a retreat in the complexity of living, or

a deceleration in the tempo of change. The generative forces of science and technology and the urge of man to consume argue for increases rather than decreases in these matters.

Now, we must consider the educational commitment of our nation. We have an established public school system from kindergarten through the university carrying the major part of the educational load, supplemented by non-publicly supported schools. From the kindergarten through high school, there is a tuition-free public school available to all youth within reach of their homes. At this level, the purpose of the public school is to provide the best possible education for all youth. At the high-school level the central purpose of vocational education is to contribute to the achievement of the high school's total social purpose.

At the post-high school level, the situation is quite different. While the base of educational opportunity is broad, it is not spreading fast enough, particularly in the technical fields which require less than four years of college preparation. The greatest gap in American education today is in this field of post-high-school technical education. Developments within the last two decades have forced the issue of whether this phase of education can be left largely to the private sphere of business and industry or developed as a responsibility of the public school system. I think the facts of the case make it clear that every state must bridge this gap by creating the appropriate structures of organization, administration, and finance to operate a comprehensive program of public education.

I shall now turn to each of these two phases of education for the remainder of my remarks. There are four imperatives that I want to emphasize about the changing demands upon the high school for the provision of vocational education.

CHANGING DEMANDS UPON THE HIGH SCHOOL

The *first imperative* is the necessity for re-aligning the purpose or perspective of vocational education. The traditional view of vocational *versus* college preparatory work is no longer tenable. All students must acquire, insofar as possible, intellectual growth in the basic fields of knowledge that are essential to effective living in all walks of life. Also, they should be introduced to fields of specialization.

In addition, the purpose of the high school must be expanded to provide for adults who want to return for part-time study for up-grading on the job, completion of high school, and preparation for more advanced study at the post-high-school level.

Some indication of the shift in magnitude of the task which faces the high school may be noted as follows. At present, about six (or six plus) out of ten American youth are graduated from high school. Of these six, about three enter some type of post-high-school institution, and three enter occupational work. By 1970, eight out of ten youth should be graduating to meet the occupational demands. Of these graduates, four should be entering college for four or more years of preparation in the

professions. Two should enter technical curricula of two years beyond high school. Only two should be entering work directly from high school, but they should be better prepared than their predecessors. This trend should lead us ultimately to the goal of a very small number of high-school dropouts and only a few who do not pursue some further education beyond high school.

The *second imperative* is a reconstruction of vocational education in the high school. I see three broad occupational groups for the high-school curriculum to serve: (1) those who will attend college to prepare for the professions; (2) those who will enter technical education at the junior college level; and (3) those who will enter occupations after graduation at the craft or semi-skilled level of work.

Students who go on for technical education need some introduction to occupational education in the high school. Otherwise, they need much the same preparation as other college-bound students.

For those who will not pursue further schooling, the program of vocational education must place less emphasis on developing skilled or semi-skilled craftsmen and more emphasis on a foundation of knowledge and general skills for clusters of occupations. This shift in emphasis is obvious in view of a hundred or more occupational fields in which the worker needs some formal education before employment.

The *third imperative* facing the high school is to cope more adequately with the problem of diversity. After the most functional grouping of related occupations, a minimum of eight to ten curriculum areas would have to be offered in each high school to afford the necessary breadth of educational opportunity for all youth. This is impossible for a school with an enrollment of less than 2,000 students. Hence, I am not very hopeful that much will be done to improve vocational education except in the large school systems where a single school does not have to be viewed as a comprehensive institution, but where variable offerings exist among several schools or attendance centers.

The task of modern education is impossible to accomplish fully in the small school. There are alternatives, however, for the little communities and pieces of communities throughout the land to raise my hopes. One is to consolidate. In some cases, this can go far toward solving the organizational problem of size. In other cases, this procedure will not yield a local school system with a high-school population of adequate size for a comprehensive education. The alternative in this case is to create regions of small districts for cooperative action in consolidating instruction in the vocational areas. The beginnings of this idea in rudimentary form are already in operation in a number of places throughout the country.

In our concept of a comprehensive high school, we have failed to come to grips with the issue of organization to meet the problem of diversity in vocational education. We have been more concerned with a school or

attendance center than a school system. What we should be working for is a comprehensive educational program that can be operated feasibly for a high-school population which might be served in a number of schools or attendance centers if necessary, neither one of which would have everything. Only a relatively few large high schools can approach this concept of a comprehensive program in reality.

The *fourth imperative* is the necessity for shoring up the financial support of the total high-school program. If we have learned anything from the experience of the past fifty years, the next fifty should not be encumbered with piecemeal fiscal procedures. There have been too many special financial arrangements which tended to fragment the program of the secondary school rather than contribute to unity and strength.

Technical education at the post-high-school level is a new phase of education which has developed in recent years as a result of technological advance. It prepares workers for jobs that have demands for knowledge and skill which fall somewhere between the craftsman and the professional worker.

As a new field, technical education is having growth pains. The nomenclature is in a stage of development. Curricula naturally have to be developed to serve occupational needs. The wide variability of employment patterns creates some difficulty in this respect, but nonetheless more than 100 curricula in technical education are in existence somewhere throughout the country. The vast range of specialization presents unusual problems in planning programs to provide breadth of opportunity to students, in establishing standards, and in other matters as well.

A unique feature of technical curricula is the importance of general education as a common denominator for all specialized areas. Nearly half of the course of study in most curricula consists of general education—English, history, science, mathematics, economics, sociology, psychology, and the like.

THE PROBLEM OF ORGANIZATION

The problem of organization is especially in need of a proper conception. There seem to be three basic patterns of administrative organization. *One* is to attach this phase of education to senior institutions of higher education. *Another* is to create a system of institutions solely for technical education with operating units located strategically with reference to population. The *third* is to modify existing junior college institutions and to create a system of comprehensive junior colleges to include technical and pre-professional curricula, with operating units located strategically with reference to population.

To meet the challenge ahead of us, the organizational structures in most states must be revamped and a totally new design established. The job cannot be done in most states merely by patching the systems of junior colleges and technical institutes in existence today.

Programs must be planned on a state-wide basis, with state and nation-wide employment opportunities in mind. This means a catholic rather than a provincial view must prevail in the planning of educational programs. The occupational character of a local community has only little effect on the nature of the curricula in technical education that should be made available to youth and adults. If planned strategically, operating units may have a majority of students commuting daily. This is important for students who prefer to live at home or who cannot afford otherwise to attend, and especially for part-time students who may be expected to equal the full-time ones in number. Strategic location of operating units will have two other important advantages. The size of each unit can be large enough to provide a broad scope of curricula and the cost can be reduced to an economical level. The number of students who will have to transfer from their home community to another one to enter the desired curriculum would thus be reduced to a minimum.

As the needs of vocational and technical education are studied diligently, I am sure the evidence will mount a picture far greater than the view held generally at present. There will be a tendency for some people to resist the facts on the grounds of added tax burden. They may thereby fail to recognize the positive effects on the economy and the most overpowering fact of all—the necessity for survival.

The task is one of close cooperation between the educational institution and the fields of occupational employment. Business and industry will not be relinquishing their responsibility for pre-employment education or for on-the-job training. It will be necessary for them to communicate to the classroom and the laboratory specialized occupational knowledge. On the other hand, the educational institution can provide instruction in an academic environment which cannot be duplicated elsewhere. As one industrialist is reputed to say to an instructor of chemical technology in a junior college, "The business of your institution is education. You can provide a necessary educational experience for the student which we cannot duplicate, and, even if we tried, it would cost much more."

The Principal and the Superior English Student

J. N. HOOK

FOR the past three years, the Achievement Awards competition of the National Council of Teachers of English has been on the approved list of the NASSP. It is intended to discover some of the best of the nation's high-school English students and to recommend them to colleges for scholarships or other assistance. During the first two years, 762 winners and 647 runners-up were chosen. Preliminary screening took place within the individual high schools, and final selections were made by state-wide teams of judges working under NCTE supervision. These teams judged on the bases of scores on standardized literature and composition tests and on three compositions prepared by each entrant. Most of the judges were college teachers of English; a few were outstanding high-school teachers of English; some were chairmen of college or university English departments, or chairmen of college freshman composition.

The NCTE each year sends printed lists of winners and runners-up to directors of admission and English department heads in all of the nation's colleges. Cordial expressions of interest from many colleges have been supplemented, in a large number of instances, by offers of financial help to these superior students. An increasing number of colleges are offering inducements of various kinds. One liberal arts college has earmarked \$100,000 for scholarship help to winners. The first year's winners and runners-up received help worth more than \$850,000 (although many of these able students would unquestionably have received assistance even had the Awards competition not existed). No figures are yet available for the second year, and the successful students in the third year are still in high school.

In the spring of 1960, after the second year's winners were known, I sent a questionnaire to the slightly over 800 English department heads in schools which had produced winners or runners-up in either or both of the first two years. The returns totaled 746—over 90 per cent. The purpose of the questionnaire was to discover, in so far as possible, the characteristics of these schools and departments. The article you are now reading represents an attempt to pick out a number of findings and observations that may be of special interest and use to principals and other administrators. It is based to a considerable extent, but not entirely, on the answers to one of the fifteen questions asked, a free-response ques-

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tion worded as follows: "To what factors do you attribute the success of your school in educating NCTE Achievement Award winners?"

PREPARATION OF TEACHERS

The excellence of the English faculty or of individual teachers is the item most frequently named in the free responses, with 289 of a possible 746 volunteering this answer. Again and again appear such adjectives as "well-prepared," "dedicated," "hard-working," "superior," "interested," and "professional-minded."

The reply to a quest concerning the preparation of all the English teachers in the department gives these revealing totals: 4,147 have college undergraduate majors in English; 1,112 have college undergraduate minors in English; and 207 have neither undergraduate majors nor minors in English. It is significant that 78.6 per cent of the teachers in these departments are strongly prepared in the subject they are teaching and that only 3.9 per cent have less than minimum undergraduate preparation.

Another question was asked about graduate training of the teachers. Of 5,381 teachers for whom information was supplied here, 1,553 have a master's degree in English; 847 have a master's degree in education; 357 have a master's degree in another subject; and 45 have a doctor's degree. The number of doctorates seems surprisingly high. Of the total number of teachers, 51.5 per cent have master's degrees; of these over half (56.3 per cent) earned the degree in English.

In free responses, much of the credit for the success of students in the Awards competition is given by department heads to qualified, dedicated, hard-working, professional-minded teachers. Typical comments: "Teachers well educated in the field of English who have taught creatively to capture the students' interest and communicate a love for good literature." "Teachers with excellent backgrounds in reading and writing who encourage students to read, to write, and to think." "Dedication of individual English teachers to inspiring or requiring a high quality of performance from their respective students; a constant awareness that what they are doing must be constantly evaluated and re-evaluated as they encounter ideas new to them."

CURRICULUM

Five comments on the English curriculum are repeated often enough and vigorously enough to warrant serious attention.

1. *There is a planned course of study.* In 293 of the schools responding, the curriculum is planned cooperatively by members of the English department; in 96, by the city school system, encompassing two or more high schools; in 67, by the state. Only 65 schools state that they operate on the basis of departmental planning without a written-out course of study; 73 report that all planning is the responsibility of individual teachers. Thus in over three fourths of these schools little of the work in English is left to chance; in only one school in eight does a *laissez-faire* policy of complete individual responsibility exist. However, many depart-

ment heads emphasize that each teacher is given considerable freedom within the agreed-upon plan, so that the teacher may adapt to the individual differences in his classes and to his own strengths.

In 500 of the 685 Award-winning schools that gave information about the number of years of English required of students in grades 9, 10, 11, and 12, four full years are prescribed; in 185, less than four years. English credits in most of these schools are not given for speech and journalism.

2. *The programs are balanced and sequential.* The majority of schools (333 of the 646 responding on this point) devote about half their time in English 10, 11, and 12 to literature and about half to composition, broadly defined. Of the remaining schools, 96 devote about three-eighths of the time to literature, and 129 devote five eighths. These figures do not mean, of course, that the literature and composition are taught in alternation; rather, writing, grammar, and the like are often interwoven with the study of literature.

Numerous department heads referred to the sequential nature of their programs, mentioning, for instance: "A coordinated junior high-school and senior high-school English program." "A spirally developed four-year program of English set up to provide systematic growth in a number of areas." "The continuity of the English program in our school." "An able faculty which has some success in presenting the language skills in a sequential order and in focusing all these skills on critical thinking." "A course of study to insure the teaching of all phases at one time or another and to eliminate unneeded duplication."

3. *Emphasis on writing is steady.* Like a refrain through the questionnaire answers, run comments like these: "Intensive composition work." "A theme a week." "Development and critical analysis of themes about twice a week" (from a school with unusually small English classes). "Writing by students and discussion of what they write." "Our teachers teach writing; they do not merely assign it." "Stress on writing by *all* English teachers." "We have been making a deliberate attempt to concentrate on writing skills; in this attempt we have emphasized clear, objective writing, often using discussion of problems arising in the literature assignments as theme topics." "A good composition is not merely written; it is composed. So our teachers over a period of years have worked to guide and cultivate students' thought processes."

In one question the department heads were asked to indicate the types of subjects on which students in their schools write frequently. Here is the tabulation of replies: personal interests, 622; literature, 620; social studies, 334; science, 197; art, 65; music, 64; and other, 169. These figures reveal a blend of emphases. Although the "personal interest" total is highest, the significant point is that students in these schools write on a variety of subjects. Writing exclusively on students' personal interests would fail to give students practice in the non-personal kinds of writing that many of them will have to perform in written examinations in other courses, in much college work, and in business and industry.

4. *Grammar is taught with stress on its application to writing and speaking.* By a margin of three and a half to one the teachers in the schools responding to this questionnaire favor "study of functional grammar, with exercises intended more to teach application than to teach identification," rather than "study of formal grammar, with a systematic analysis of rules and principles and many identification exercises." The difference in the two approaches may be illustrated in this way: Teachers of functional grammar ask questions such as "How can the reference of pronouns in this sentence be made unmistakably clear?" Teachers of formal grammar ask more often "What is a pronoun? What is meant by the antecedent of a pronoun? Pick out all the pronouns and their antecedents in these sentences."

The lack of emphasis on workbooks in the Award-winning schools is probably significant. Only eight of the respondents—slightly over one per cent—say that they devote major attention to workbook exercises.

5. *Special attention is paid to academically talented students.* No direct question was asked concerning special work for the most able students, but, in free responses, 197 of the department heads volunteered the information that work is offered superior students that is specifically tailored to their abilities and needs. Typical comments are: "An accelerated or enriched program for high IQ students." "Awareness of school personnel concerning needs of above-average pupils." "Homogeneous grouping in English classes." "Our honors program is a four-year advanced course in which the class size ranges from 20 to 30." "Small classes for excellent students."

CLASS SIZE

The rapid growth in the high-school population, coupled with shortages of money and classrooms and adequately prepared teachers, has inevitably resulted in larger rather than smaller classes in thousands of schools. Being in a large class, however, results in particular hardship for the English student. The only way he can learn to write well is to have a considerable amount of practice in writing, with his papers evaluated and commented upon thoughtfully by a well-qualified, interested person, preferably his teacher. A mere quick checking of his paper, with a few spelling or punctuation errors marked and with a comment such as "Poor" or "Good" or "You can do better," is not sufficiently helpful. But many English teachers do not assign much written work because, with large classes, they simply do not have enough time to evaluate papers properly. It requires an average of 10 minutes a paper to grade and comment upon 250 words (including about a minute and a half for checking the revised, corrected paper when it is returned). For 200 students, each writing a paper a week, that means 2,000 minutes, or 33½ hours, for this task alone. Assuming that a conscientious teacher graded papers from 7 to 11 P.M. on Monday, Tuesday, Wednesday, Thursday, and Friday, he would still have left 8 hours of grading on Saturday and

5½ hours on Sunday! Few teachers can be so conscientious that they will add 33½ hours to a work load that is already at least equal to that of teachers of other subjects. Consequently, they assign infrequent compositions, students fail to learn to write well, and high schools are criticized for turning out semi-literate students.

In the Award-winning schools, the average class load is smaller than that in many American schools, though it is still not small enough. Median class size in English classes of these schools is 25-29 students, the questionnaire revealed. The teacher with 5 classes has, then, 125-145 students. This is considerably above the official NCTE recommendation of four classes with a total enrollment of no more than 100, but it is much better than the 175 to 200 students per teacher found in hundreds of schools.

Since the ability to write clearly and coherently is of maximum importance not only in college but also in every profession and in millions of jobs in business and industry, it is to be hoped that communities will cease short-changing their children by denying them the opportunity to learn to write. It is noteworthy that in Russian elementary and secondary schools, according to *Soviet Professional Manpower*, the ratio of students to teachers in 1930 was 36 to 1; in 1940 it was 28 to 1; in 1950, it was 23 to 1.

FACILITIES AND MATERIALS

The Award-winning schools, as a group, are reasonably generous in supplying facilities and materials useful in learning English. The libraries have a median of 6,000-10,000 books, with reading-room space for 50-100 students at one time. Classroom libraries are frequent in many classrooms, most frequent in English classrooms. The accessibility of plenty of carefully chosen books in the library and the classroom unquestionably contributed to the success of these schools in educating their students in English. Typical comments: "Our facilities are excellent: classrooms, library, and classroom libraries." "Good library with a fine, cooperative librarian who works with the teachers in the library and the classroom."

Books are obviously the tools most needed in the learning of English; they are as essential as chemicals and microscopes are in the science laboratory. Yet other materials facilitate and enrich English learning, such as recordings and record-playing or tape-playing equipment, literary maps, films and filmstrips, and the like. In free responses, a number of the department heads called attention to the availability of such materials, saying, for instance, "Plenty of resources for the classroom." "Plenty of films; multiple textbooks." "Excellent facilities and materials provided by a cooperative and sympathetic administration." "Good instructional materials, including textbooks, reference books, and audio-visual aids."

ADMINISTRATIVE ATTITUDES

Many of the department heads in the Award-winning schools single out the principals or other administrators for special credit, making such comments as these: "Encouragement from supervisors and administrators."

"Administrative concern for in-service training and improvement of instruction." "Administrative emphasis on importance of academic work." "An understanding and cooperative principal and assistant principal." "The principal's belief that English teachers should have comparatively small class loads." "Achievement of brain gets equal recognition with achievement of brawn." "A principal who maintains a spirit of cooperation and a desire for learning in the school system." "A principal who accords student writing as much prestige as athletics." "We honor our young writers in assembly programs and in school and local newspapers."

The influence of principals is also evident in the occasional comments on cooperation from other departments, such as "Encouragement of the use of good English in other departments in the school." "English is emphasized in the total school program, not merely as a subject." "Realization of the significance of English in the total curriculum." "Science, social studies, and English departments cooperate." "A wonderful *esprit de corps* among the whole faculty."

Many of the respondents refer to school and community emphasis upon high academic standards, an emphasis which strong superintendents and principals may do much to foster. One department head, for example, wrote, "The demanding program has made intellectual achievement more 'fashionable' than athletic endeavor." Another, "High standards outlined by the principal." Another, "Attempt to live up to the slogan 'The School That Leads.'" And another, with a long tradition of high standards, "Fifty years of emphasis on intellectual challenge." Still another, "Our public relations program has resulted in a community interested in the academic achievements of its young people."

CONCLUSIONS

The NASSP "position paper" on the teaching of English, discussed and modified by the principals attending the Portland convention in 1960, makes a number of positive suggestions concerning the strengthening of the English program in the secondary schools. My study, as reported here and in the *English Journal*, suggests that the high schools which have produced winners and runners-up in the NCTE Achievement Awards competition already conform to a considerable extent to the major recommendations of the NASSP. For the consideration of principals and other administrators, my study emphasizes the following points, most of which are also made in the NASSP report:

1. In so far as possible, English departments should be staffed with teachers who have strong preparation in college English courses; graduate work is also desirable, especially in English.
2. An English course of study, if a fairly recent one does not exist, should be prepared, adopted, or adapted, although teachers should be permitted to vary content offerings within the general framework, in order to allow for individual differences in their classes and in themselves.

Consideration should be given to requiring four full-year credits in English in grades 9, 10, 11, and 12, exclusive of work in journalism and speech.

3. Approximately half of English class time should be devoted to literature, half to composition (broadly defined to include writing, grammar, punctuation, spelling, and the like). The work in composition may best be closely integrated with that in literature. Careful attention should be given to the coordination of the high-school English work with that of the earlier years, and to a planned sequence with gradual increases in difficulty and level of maturity.

4. English teachers should be encouraged to require considerable amounts of writing of their students. The topics for composition should be varied, with occasional "personal interest" topics for motivation but also with much writing on relatively impersonal subjects relating to literature, social studies, science, the arts, and other areas.

5. English teachers should be encouraged to stress application of the grammatical concepts they teach, with less emphasis upon identification of parts of speech, *etc.*, and more upon their use in sentences and upon avoidance of trouble spots.

6. The English curriculum should make special provisions for particularly able students, through grouping, enrichment, acceleration, or other means. (See the NCTE-NEA publication *High School English for the Academically Talented*, available for \$1.00 from either the NCTE or the NEA.)

7. In order that a sufficient amount of writing may be required and carefully evaluated, principals and other administrators should inform school boards and the community at large about the imperative need for relatively small classes in English.

8. Principals should press for adequately stocked libraries with a considerable supply of books of high literary quality. Facilities should be provided for English classroom libraries, with books chosen by English teachers and with frequent turnover. Many of these books may be paperbound. (See *Paperbound Books in Print*, issued periodically by the R. R. Bowker Company, for information about books available in this format, many of them of very high quality.) Other books in the classroom library may be secured on special loan from the school or the public library.

9. Principals should attempt to supply those recordings, films, filmstrips, literary maps, and tape recordings which English teachers believe will improve and enrich the learning of their students.

10. Perhaps the greatest contribution the principal can make to the English program is school-wide emphasis upon the importance of English and other academic subjects. Through stressing high standards of achievement and through showing by word and deed that the school regards academic attainments at least as highly as non-academic or extracurricular, the principal can help to make academic accomplishment permanently "fashionable."

The National Honor Society Continues To Grow

COLBURN E. HOOTON

"LITTLE did the founding fathers of the National Honor Society, members of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, in the early days of 1921 think that the growth and development of this national organization would be so impressive." The above statement, taken from the forward of the EIGHTH HANDBOOK of the National Honor Society of Secondary Schools, published in 1954, becomes increasingly significant when the record of growth in the number of National Honor Society and National Junior Honor Society chapters chartered during the past ten-year period is reviewed:

<i>School Year</i>	<i>Active Chapters (Beginning of School Year)</i>	<i>New Chapters (During School Year)</i>	<i>Total (Active Chapters for School Year)</i>
1949-50	3298	390	3688
1950-51	3580	354	3934
1951-52	3925	203	4128
1952-53	4084	316	4400
1953-54	4397	280	4677
1954-55	4677	378	5055
1955-56	5055	391	5446
1956-57	5242	493	5735
1957-58	5693	678	6371
1958-59	6346	907	7253
1959-60	7182	841	8023
Total		5231	

One of the important reasons for founding the National Honor Society was to establish a means for promoting scholarship and academic achievement. With the recent increased emphasis on academic achievement and the return of respectability for scholarship, many secondary schools throughout the nation have established chapters of the National Honor Society in order to give recognition and encouragement to outstanding students. Membership in the National Honor Society, an organization recognized the world over for its high standards for membership, affords

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these outstanding students national prestige in furthering their education or in seeking employment. The rapid expansion of this program is evidenced by the fact that 2,426 chapters of the National Honor Society have been established in accredited or approved secondary schools in this country and in American schools overseas during the past three years!

At the beginning of the 1949-50 school year, there were 3,298 chapters of the National Honor Society in secondary schools of this nation. Continuous growth throughout the 10-year period resulted in the chartering of 5,231 new chapters for a total of 8,023 active chapters at the end of the 1959-60 school year. An active chapter is required to submit an annual report at the end of each school year, listing chapter activities and membership for the current year. This annual report constitutes an official record of the chapter and is kept in the confidential file folder for the chapter in the national office. Chapters which fail to submit the annual report after a second notice are removed from the file. If the chapter fails to submit an annual report for five consecutive years, it is declared inactive and is removed from the mailing list. A chapter may be reactivated, at no cost to the school, by requesting such action by the national office.

The reconciling of the national office files takes place during the summer months each year. This accounts for the difference in numbers of active chapters listed above at the close of a school year and those listed at the beginning of the next school year. Actually, at the end of the 1959-60 school year, 8,979 had been chartered by the National Honor Society. However, due mainly to consolidation of schools, there were only 8,023 chapters on the active list at the close of the school year 1959-60.

How many students are members of the National Honor Society? An attempt was made at the close of the 1959-60 school year to determine the actual number of the National Honor Society members. This information was requested on the annual report for the year 1959-60. Based on information received, membership in the National Honor Society for the year 1959-60 was over 200,000 students. Since active membership is limited to juniors and seniors in secondary schools and the further consideration that membership is based on high standards of scholarship, service, leadership, and character, it is apparent the aims and purposes of the National Honor Society are being achieved in many of our secondary schools.

Membership in the National Honor Society not only offers the highest honor a student may receive in high school, but it also enables many members to further their education through the National Honor Society Scholarship Program. During the past fifteen years, the National Honor Society has administered a scholarship fund totaling \$205,750 to senior members who have qualified for scholarships and awards. The annual scholarship fund is increasing each year. For the 1960-61 school year, more than \$37,000 will be available for scholarships and awards. Mem-

bers of the National Honor Society may compete for a scholarship if they are members of the senior class and qualify on the Preliminary Scholastic Aptitude Test, prepared by the Educational Testing Service, Princeton, New Jersey, and given in their schools during October, and the General Aptitude Test, prepared by the National Honor Society, and also administered in their schools in March each year.

The National Association of Secondary-School Principals is pleased with the contribution it is making to the student activity program in the secondary schools of this nation through the sponsorship and administration of the National Honor Society and the National Junior Honor Society. This program has grown from an organization that was administered as one of the many duties of the first Executive Secretary of the NASSP, Mr. H. V. Church, to one now requiring the attention of a number of staff members.

Many state principals' associations have shown their interest in the National Honor Society and the National Junior Honor Society by establishing a state National Honor Society committee to promote and coordinate the programs on the state and national level. A school which is accredited by the regional accrediting agency or has the highest approval awarded by the State Department of Education and is interested in establishing a chapter of the National Honor Society or the National Junior Honor Society is invited to write to: ELLSWORTH TOMPKINS, *Secretary*, National Honor Society, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W., Washington 6, D. C. Complete information for establishing a chapter will be sent immediately.

The Founding Fathers would be pleased with the growth and impressiveness of the National Honor Society during the past years. With continued emphasis on identifying the capable students and encouraging full academic achievement, school and community service, leadership ability, and high character standards, the National Honor Society will serve students in the secondary schools of this nation to an even greater extent during the decades ahead.

Curricular and Instructional Practices for Superior Students

DAVID E. NEWTON

THE theme of the in-service program of the Ottawa Hills High School in Grand Rapids, Michigan, during the 1958-59 school year was "How can we provide learning opportunities for students of varying abilities." In order to investigate all phases of this question, the faculty of the high school was divided into three groups: one committee studied the aspects of this question which dealt with superior students; the second committee concerned itself with the learning patterns of the average student; and the third considered the slow learner. The purpose of this report is to summarize very briefly the results of the work done by the faculty committee on superior students.

The work of the committee on superior students was directed along three lines: (1) a review and resumé of current literature relating to the characteristics and identification of the gifted student; (2) an investigation of teaching practices and curricular patterns used by high schools to provide learning opportunities among superior students (This information was obtained both by a study of current literature on the subject and by an original survey by the committee of curriculum and teaching practices in certain selected high schools throughout the nation.); (3) an intensive and exhaustive study of the character of Ottawa Hills High School as revealed in its senior class of 1959. In this study, extensive information on the superior students' grades, school and work loads, test scores, and attitudes was obtained. This article is specifically concerned with the features of this project of national concern and interest; i.e., item two, regarding the study of current practices.

A study of the most recent books and periodical articles reveals a rather general agreement as to the principles which should be regarded as desirable goals in the education of the superior student. The suggested outcomes most frequently suggested are: (1) a broad general education; (2) the development of some specialized talent in each student; (3) education in community responsibility; (4) development of self-understanding and self-appreciation; and (5) construction within the school and within the community of a desirable climate for intellectually superior students.

The various administrative techniques by which these educational goals are actually reached are usually classified into one of three major categories: ability grouping, acceleration, and enrichment. These terms are not, unfortunately, clearly defined, distinct entities. Thus some people would regard an eighth-grade class in algebra as an enrichment device,

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while others would look upon this as acceleration. Nor are these practices exclusive; enrichment is complementary to grouping, as acceleration may be complementary to grouping, and so on.

ABILITY GROUPING

Current research and professional opinion in the educational literature generally echoes the recurrent and dichotomous theme associated with ability grouping. This practice is regarded as fair and democratic by some authorities because it allows each pupil to work to his capacity; other experts decry the practice as undemocratic because it provides opportunities to one segment of the population that is not provided to the other segments. Some studies have indicated greater achievement in grouped classes, while others seem to detect no difference in achievement between homogeneous and heterogeneous classes. Proponents of grouping claim that social and personal adjustment are not retarded when students are grouped; critics of the practice claim that both superior and non-superior students form undesirable social attitudes when the former are segregated from their less talented classmates. Evidence is available which shows that some teachers prefer classes which are grouped according to ability, while other teachers do not. And so continues the age-old argument about grouping with little conclusive evidence on either side of the question.

An interesting observation about this duality has been made by Milton Klein. In a recent report, Klein has stated that the defects of this technique often may stem not from the existence of the classes themselves, but from their composition and the role which they play in the school. For example, some of the classes which he observed had been selected on the basis of vague and subjective criteria. Therefore, no real homogeneous grouping existed. He also found that some administrators regarded the organization of the class sufficient in itself. No special provisions for instruction were made; no special teachers were provided; no free time was allowed for the teachers of these classes, *etc.*¹

On the basis of latest evidence, it appears that ability grouping is growing in popularity, particularly in the secondary school. For example, in his summary address to the National Education Association Conference on "The Identification and Education of the Academically Talented Student in the American Secondary School," Dr. James B. Conant stated that, "There was a strong sentiment in all the working groups for arranging classes so that a pupil of high ability in a given subject—English for example—will study this subject together with other students of comparable ability."² In the same conference, the group meeting on the "Education

¹ Milton M. Klein, "Educating Gifted Youth: The Record and the Promise" (Condensation of report to the Fund for the Advancement of Education), *High Points*, Vol. XXXIX, No. 8, November 1957, pp. 25-36.

² National Education Association. *The Identification and Education of the Academically Talented Student in the American Secondary School*, Conference Report, February, 1958, p. 137.

of the Academically Talented Secondary School Pupil in Social Studies," the group most likely to favor "democratic procedures," recommended that, "The school should seek to develop policies of identification and admission to special programs or classes worked out with attention to the student's school performance, test scores, interest motivation, and total load. Selective groupings might be used in programming students with high ability."³

ACCELERATION

As with ability grouping, it is not difficult to find authorities who will argue either side of the "acceleration question." According to these authorities, acceleration provides the gifted pupil with experiences which challenge his intellectual ability, avoids the habits of laziness which grow out of boredom, and also makes it possible for gifted pupils to assume adult responsibilities sooner. At the same time, we are told that this practice results in personality damage for pupils whose emotional, social, and physical growth do not match their mental maturity. Also, pupils who "skip" grades may very often miss the opportunity to learn basic facts and skills, may reach college before they have clearly defined goals, and may find that they have missed classes in high school which would have been of more benefit to them than some of their college classes. Accelerated students additionally miss the advantages of extracurricular activities in high school. In contrast to some of these more severe criticisms of the acceleration procedure, there is no research study which shows that acceleration is specifically harmful. Dr. Miriam Goldberg points out that, "On the contrary, from the early studies of the 1930's until the recent report by the Fund for the Advancement of Education on its Early Admissions Program, acceleration has proved to be a very satisfactory method of challenging able students."⁴

In summary, we might conclude that the older notion of acceleration as the "skipping" of grades is becoming much less popular. Instead, many schools are now providing gifted students with the opportunity of completing the required work in a shorter time. The survey which constitutes the second half of this report indicates that this is achieved in two ways. In some cases, courses which are normally covered in a year and a half or two years are condensed to one-year courses for gifted students. Thus, some schools teach Algebra I, II, and III in a single year. This may be done in a "spot" fashion just by selecting certain courses in the curriculum and condensing them. In other cases, however, a whole sequence may be condensed. This is frequently done in the field of mathematics when the normal college preparatory sequence of Algebra I and II, Geometry I and II, Solid Geometry, Intermediary and College Algebra, and Trigonometry (normally eight semesters of work) is reduced to a three-year

³ *Ibid.*, pp. 118-119.

⁴ Miriam L. Goldberg, "Recent Research on the Talented," *Teachers College Record*, Vol. 60, No. 3, December 1958, p. 154.

course. This provides additional time in the last year for advanced topics. It appears from current practices that the future of acceleration as an administrative technique in the education of the gifted is in this direction.

ENRICHMENT

Of the three means of meeting the educational needs of the gifted pupil, the most widely approved, but the least clearly understood and least generally practiced, is enrichment. As Dr. Goldberg said in her report on "Recent Research on the Talented," "... enrichment, like the weather, is something everybody talks about but few do anything about." The major problem seems to be that for each person who uses the term there is a different understanding of its meaning; nonetheless, it is so educationally sound that no pedagogue can deny its usefulness—no matter exactly what it means.

Enrichment is an inevitable corollary to both ability grouping and acceleration in their true and complete meanings. Both techniques are empty processes if enrichment is not an integral part of them. However, enrichment does have a significance of its own beyond its application to grouped classes and programs of acceleration. This is, in its use in heterogeneous, non-accelerated classes where the gifted student has no other special advantages. From this standpoint, enrichment takes on a respectability of its own.

Some of the specific ways in which a heterogeneous class can be enriched are: (1) individualized assignments; (2) a quantitatively greater amount of work than the average student; (3) assignments requiring creative work by the superior student; (4) activities related to but outside of the classroom work; (5) projects which require gifted students to do some type of original study or research; (6) more reading and reading of more advanced materials; (7) additional physical facilities; and (8) extracurricular activities.

While these proposals may sound logical and practical on paper, they often result in a the-rest-of-the-class-has-ten-problems-to-do-so-I'll-give-the-gifted-students-fifteen-to-do approach, and "the ideal of enrichment in heterogeneous classes is hardly ever attained satisfactorily."⁵

SURVEY OF CURRENT PRACTICES

The second phase of the study by the committee on superior students was an analysis of curricular patterns and teaching practices currently to be found in American high schools. In order to obtain this information, the committee sent out a five-part questionnaire to 118 high schools and 12 large city school systems. The first three questions concerned certain physical characteristics of the school—number of students, grades in the school, size of faculty, etc. The last two questions requested information

⁵ Education Policies Commission. *Education of the Gifted*. Washington, D. C.: National Education Association. 1950.

concerning the methods by which the school provided educational opportunities for its superior students. Sixty-nine schools (about 58%) returned completed questionnaires. The results of the information obtained in the survey are summarized in Table I.

TABLE I—A Brief Summary of Survey

Size of School ¹	Number of Schools	Methods of Grouping			"Special" Classes	Enrichment ⁴	Nothing
		Tracks	Extensive ²	Moderate ³			
less than 500	12	1	2	2	3	1	5
501 to 1000	7	0	1	3	5	0	1
1001 to 1500	7	0	2	4	6	1	1
1501 to 2000	13	1	5	3	6	1	0
2001 to 3000	14	4	6	4	8	5	0
3001 to 4000	5	1	2	2	4	1	0
over 4000	6	1	2	2	4	1	0
Totals ⁵	64	8	20	20	36	10	7

¹ For purposes of comparison, all schools have been reduced to the common size of 9-12 grades. Thus, if a school had 300 pupils in grades 10-12, this figure was interpolated to give 400 pupils for grades 9-12.

² The term "extensive" here indicates a widespread, if not a unanimous, use of homogeneous grouping in the school. The criteria were the schools' own statements and the consequent inclusion of all schools in which this type of grouping was used in five or more subject matter areas.

³ The term "moderate" refers to homogeneous grouping which is not school-wide. In this case, the criterion was that the grouping was used in four or fewer (but not none) subject matter areas. The majority of the schools in this category used grouping in three areas.

⁴ As mentioned elsewhere in the report, the term *enrichment* has a large variety of meanings. In this case, only those schools which described enrichment as being a part (no matter how small) of their *heterogeneous* classes have been included. The only exception to this statement is that a very few schools specifically used the word *enrichment* in referring to the work within a homogeneous group; in this case, the school is included under this column.

⁵ The difference between the number of schools reporting and the number of practices reported is due, of course, to the fact that many schools report the use of more than one practice.

Certain general observations can be made about the results of this survey:

1. As mentioned previously in this article, an administrative device being more frequently used today is the "special class," a highly successful means of

combining the advantages of grouping, acceleration, and enrichment. Over half of the schools reporting mentioned some type of special classes for superior students.

2. These special classes may take two specific forms: (1) classes which cover traditional subject matter areas more rapidly and with enrichment (*e.g.*, special senior English for college-bound students) and (2) new classes involving areas of study not ordinarily included in high-school curricula (*e.g.*, Latin American history). Some of the specific "special classes" which were mentioned include analytic geometry, calculus, advanced physics, advanced geometry, calculus, advanced physics, advanced chemistry, humanities readings, science seminar, Greek classics, advanced field biology, social studies seminar, electronics, and creative writing.

3. A number of schools report that some subjects are begun earlier than has been traditional. In particular, algebra and foreign language are being introduced to superior students at the junior high-school level, usually in eighth grade.

4. More use is being made of summer school, Saturdays, and after-school time in providing academic experiences for the gifted.

5. There appears to be an increased emphasis on the guidance of superior students. The use of guidance was described as frequently by those schools which had no special program for the gifted as by those which had extensive programs.

6. Only one school system specifically stated that acceleration to permit early completion of high school was used. Other than this, it appears that the major means by which students may complete school early is through the Advanced Placement program.

What's Wrong with the Advanced Placement Program

JACK N. ARBOLINO

ONE of the best rules of conduct I know is "no sudden moves." It is one of the by-laws of a group of seven-year-old girls. These small irregulars list another catchy principle: "If running, do not chase." But that one has no bearing here and, I must admit I cite the first only to break it.

My sudden move is to tell what's wrong with the Advanced Placement Program. If you haven't heard what's *right* with it, you haven't been listening very hard. Such diverse educational spokesmen as Bowles,

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Conant, and Rickover have praised it. The NASSP and the NCIS have devoted special publications to it and, perhaps most important of all, school and college teachers and administrators all over the country have not only endorsed it and become volunteer workers for the cause, but they have manifestly appropriated to themselves a private sense of responsibility for its welfare. I know no higher praise than that.

Since its inception, the program has been singled out and sung to, and part of my job for the past two years has been to do some of this singing—usually, I should add, as a small voice in a strong chorus. Maledictions have been few, for, if the Program is not just a cut below baseball, mother, and the U.S. Marines, it is at least to be counted among the first ten American blessings.

Is it really worth such high marks? Is it, as the President of Brown described it, "the most promising thing that has happened in American education in years"? If it is, it can stand a harshly critical look. Here are the charges against it:

A. It is undemocratic, a money-making scheme of the College Board, a subversive attempt by the colleges to re-establish dictatorial practices.

B. It is used by schools and colleges to *look* rather than to *be* good.

C. It accents credit and, by overemphasizing testmanship, may lead to the breeding of a race of academic spigots.

D. It limits the growth of the curriculum, unduly influences it, and restricts experimentation.

E. Identification of the superior student is difficult at best; early identification is dangerous.

Tristram Shandy's father lumped unimportant household tasks with serious conjugal duties for regular execution to avoid being pestered and plagued throughout the month. His creator called all such duties "concernments." If one grants that all the charges above are, though different, concernments of the Advanced Placement Program, I too may be forgiven for trying to deal with all of them—the few false and unimportant and the remainder valid and serious—at one time. Those listed under B, C, D, and E have validity; those in A have none and the latter will do for a start.

Advanced placement is, in a sense, a program for the elite, but it is hardly undemocratic. There is varied and abundant testimony that the establishment of Advanced Placement courses in a school raises the standards throughout that school, and by radiating out and down Advanced Placement benefits all classes. The President's Science Advisory Committee has stated that: "In a democracy we should provide each individual with the opportunity to develop his own talents to the fullest. It would be difficult to think of anything less democratic than a system that sacrifices in any way the stimulation of the bright student, either to learn more or progress faster through the prescribed work." Perhaps the most succinct expression of this point of view is: "There is nothing so unequal as the equal treatment of unequals."

The matter of making money is easily put to rest. The Program lost \$150,000 last year; it will lose about \$200,000 this year. The College Board supports it proudly and well, with the hope that through increases in candidate volume and continued economies and improvements we may reach a break-even point in the future.

To complete the easily answered, the false concernments, it should be made clear that it is really the schools that are running the show. Schools do the work and the colleges benefit. It is true that certain colleges have shown leadership, but this has consisted largely in their accepting one basic premise of the Program: college work completed in school deserves college credit. In large measure the colleges have been the reluctant partners. Rather than dictating, they have served. I still receive letters from colleges which say, in effect: "We have seen your recent list of participating colleges. Last month our Committee on Instruction met and decided to take part in the Advanced Placement Program. Will you please be sure to list us the next time you print? We want to be members. What is it?"

With B the valid charges begin. If a comprehensive school is judged *only* by the number of candidates it prepares for Advanced Placement examinations, if other students and other courses are neglected, if, in short, in the quest for reputation a school pursues knowledge by description rather than by acquaintance, performance will be sacrificed to appearance. It is true that the Program provides a way to look good as well as a way to be good, but it is better to be bald than to wear a curly wig, or, to quote Mark Van Doren and Henry Bragdon, "The thing itself, not the appearance of it, is all that is ultimately important." I once saw a great football coach working with his ends. The lesson seemed to be that an aspiring pass-catcher, one who is trying to look good, will run with arms extended (to show he is trying) for a ball that is out of reach, but a real receiver will run with arms pumping (to get more speed) and fling them out at the last instant. He too may miss, but because he is not concerned with trying to *look* good he will be closer. The college that jumps on the bandwagon of Advanced Placement without truly participating and understanding it is serving neither itself nor the Program. The school that offers Advanced Placement courses and then, to rack up scores, dissuades from taking the examinations those students of whom it is not sure, subverts the ideal. One argument, then, that can be made is that, because it brings prestige, the Program lends itself to exploitation by those who seek reputation.

The concernments of C—credit, testmanship, and spigots—are serious. I know no way to eliminate the bugaboo of credit. Academic bookkeeping is an integral part of American education. While this system lasts the Program must conform. Study is its own reward, but we must deal in common currency.

To guard against spigotry, the examining committees take great pains. Course descriptions are general, and each year the examinations are

changed. Nevertheless, the examination grade is the most important factor in the eyes of the colleges. Again, as in the case of credit, the Program falls heir to the ills as well as to the attributes of our national system. As great events are sometimes made smaller by art, as the beauty of a face is diminished by minute inspection of each feature, so is a worthy endeavor made ignoble by counting. But in our over-all educational system, we count. We pay off on grades, and so does the Advanced Placement Program.

The matter of D seems to me the most serious problem the Program engenders. The traditional subjects in which Advanced Placement operates are varied and balanced. Nevertheless, as the Program grows there may be a tendency for participating schools to hew too closely to the line. In addition, the substantial experimentation that is going on in physics, mathematics, English, and other subjects may be inhibited by the existence of the Program. Because of the prestige the Program brings, it is unlikely that a successfully participating school would be eager to embark on new courses or new ways of teaching old courses. The Advanced Placement Committee is aware of the influence that the Program may exert and it is fearful lest, worthy and important as it is, the Program fix curriculum. To this end the book, *Advanced Placement Program: Course Descriptions*, carries the following paragraphs:

Advanced placement is just one of the ways American secondary schools have chosen to deal with the education of the gifted and the better-than-average student. Under the general rubric of honors work in America there is much diversity. One important quality of the Program is that, although it is still relatively new and still relatively small, it is workable as a common device and it is national in scope. It may be that out of the diversity of honors courses and through the use of the Program, there will come a concentrated, workable plan to better educate our best students.

Advanced placement is not limited to those areas in which the College Board offers examinations. Greek, philosophy, and Far Eastern history—among other subjects at college level—have been offered by a small number of schools and recognized by certain colleges. This development should serve to indicate that the Program is not designed to remain static.

The last serious charge, E, concerns selection. We must never close doors on our young people. We must select, we must try to identify the superior student early, but we must always be ready to say we were wrong. Gumption Quotient is at least as important as Intelligence Quotient. A program like Advanced Placement is greatly dependent for success on the calibre of the guidance counselor. He must sift, study, and constantly assess his over- and under-achievers, his late bloomers and early faders, the rebels, the flashes, the strong, the quiet, and the main-chance hustlers. The appalling isolation of the elite which is too frequently a hallmark of European education must not be allowed to occur in the American high school. On the other hand, pedagogical sentimentality must not dissuade us from trying to identify our best students. Guid-

ance must be continuous and selective labels, like "slow" and "superior," should never become fixed.

It seems to me that the charges discussed above constitute the bulk of the criticism that has been directed at the Program. It is still worth high marks and, if it is not the most promising thing that has happened in American education in years, it is at least exciting and important. It continues to encourage schools and colleges to work together, it tends to eliminate waste of time and duplication of studies, and perhaps, most important, it stimulates students and teachers to higher achievement. Paul Roundy of Western Reserve Academy says, "We have only our joys to celebrate." This may be too generous—there are problems. Nevertheless, the Advanced Placement Program provides a way to strengthen American education, and it is working.

An Administrative Organization Designed for Instructional Improvement

CHARLES E. WALLACE

IN THE Whittier Union High-School District, we believe that the principal of the high school is the leader of the school community and should devote nearly half of his time to the instructional program. In actual practice, it seems to be very difficult for the principal to organize his time to do an effective job with the wide range of responsibilities assigned to him and do an adequate job in the supervision of the instructional program.

The Whittier Union High-School District serves a suburban area near Los Angeles, California, and currently has six high schools with a total enrollment near 12,000 pupils where only one high school served the area as recently as 1951. During this period of rapid growth, the administrative staff has had to cope with many problems associated with expansion and growth in addition to the usual pressures of the post-sputnik era.

In 1958, the Board of Trustees employed Dr. Irving R. Melbo, Dean of the School of Education, University of Southern California, to head a team to make a complete study of the schools. The Report of the survey, published in July of 1959, contained an appraisal of the existing program and made suggestions for consideration by the Administrative staff and the board of trustees for a revised pattern of internal administrative organ-

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ization. Members of the district administrative staff visited several representative school districts and contacted others by correspondence for supplementary information about existing organizational patterns for high schools with enrollments from 1,500 to 2,400.

The primary objective in developing a new pattern of organization for the administrative staff of a high school was to free the principal of some responsibilities so that he could provide leadership for the development of the instructional program. It was recognized that if the principal is to devote nearly half of his time to the instructional program, many of the responsibilities currently assigned to the principal would need to be delegated to an administrative officer serving in the capacity of an assistant principal. At this point, a judgment decision was made as to what responsibilities could best be delegated and the manner in which the staff could be organized.

It is generally agreed that the principal should be responsible for community and public relations, certain activities of the student body, and certain business and administrative functions. Keeping these things in mind, the Whittier Union High-School District determined that, if each principal is to be allowed a high degree of freedom to develop a curriculum adapted to the needs of the school community, the principal must provide the leadership both to the staff and the members of the community to help make this determination. In order to achieve these objectives, it was decided that, for a school of 1,800 students or more, it would require at least three full-time assistant principals.

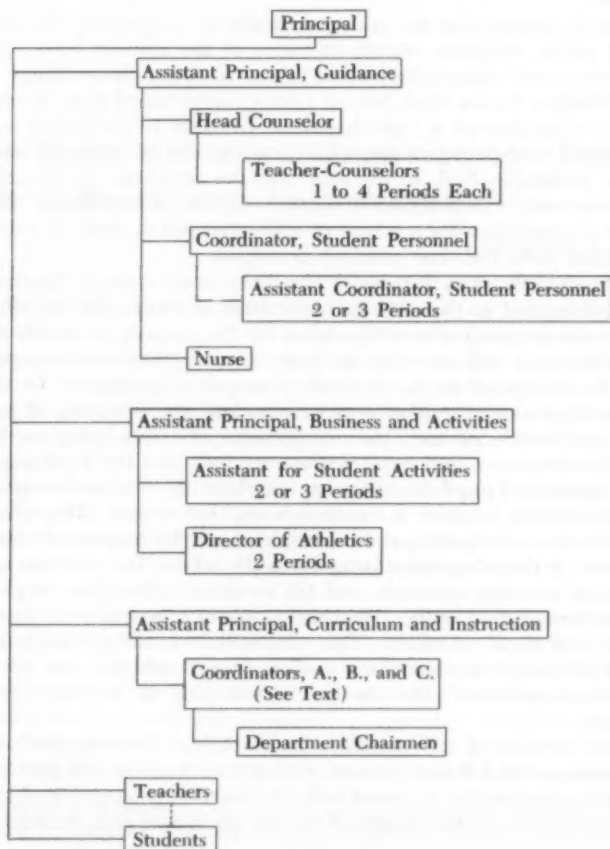
It is extremely difficult to distinguish clearly between many of the functions to be delegated to the administrative staff members, but an effort has been made to group several functions by the manner in which the members of the staff will serve the students. One of the areas of responsibility to be delegated to an assistant principal is *guidance*. In this division, the functions of guidance and counseling, the provision of psychological and health services, the management of safety program, the provision for attendance and pupil welfare services, and the handling of the school program of pupil discipline are coordinated. A second assistant principal is assigned to assist in *curriculum and instruction*. This officer is responsible for coordinating the development of the courses of study, the evaluation of the educational program in the school, the selection and preparation of learning materials, and the in-service education program for the members of the faculty. The third assistant principal is in charge of *business and pupil activities*. This administrative officer directs the program of extracurricular activities, student council, athletics and school social functions, and assists the principal in managing the business affairs of the school.

The second echelon of staff members has the title of "coordinator" and, in most instances, has full-time persons with special training and qualifications for their assignment. To serve with the assistant principal in charge of guidance, there is a coordinator of student personnel and an assistant

coordinator of student personnel who is responsible for maintaining all of the records regarding the attendance of the pupils, assisting in the enforcement of the compulsory attendance laws, and counseling students and parents regarding attendance matters. The coordinator of pupil personnel is the person charged specifically with assisting members of the faculty and staff with discipline problems. The head counselor is responsible for providing leadership to the teacher-counselors who are assigned specific counseling responsibilities with students.

In the area of pupil activities, the coordinator works directly with student clubs, class organizations, and directs the interscholastic athletic program.

Administrative Organization for High School



Probably the main innovation of the administrative organization is the establishment of the position of coordinator to aid in the development of the program of curriculum and instruction. The concept of coordinator is not new to the Whittier Union High-School District since, for many years, the district has had a basic course program in grades nine through eleven which combines English and social studies. A full-time coordinator has customarily been assigned the responsibility of working with all of the teachers in the basic course classes, in both English and social studies. The new administrative organization allows for three full-time coordinators for high schools with an enrollment of 1,800 or more. Typically, one coordinator is assigned in the area of English and social studies; a second coordinator, in art, music, business, and industrial arts; and a third coordinator, in foreign language, science, and mathematics.

The function of the coordinator is to provide general leadership and direction to the development of the curriculum and instructional materials in the areas assigned. Department chairmen in specific subject fields may be assigned by the principal and receive extra compensation, but no released time, for their responsibilities. The coordinator is responsible to the assistant principal in charge of curriculum and instruction and works closely with the classroom teachers in each of the subject fields in his division. The coordinator shares the responsibility for visiting the classroom and assisting with the improvement of the instructional program, as well as for evaluating the teaching process. The principal is responsible primarily for the formal supervision of instruction and evaluation of the effectiveness of the teachers.

The recommendation to establish coordinators for subject areas is based on the premise that these people will be skilled teachers and, relieved of other classroom responsibilities, the improvement of the instructional program will become their *prime* interest. The Whittier Union High-School District has adopted this plan for 1960-61. An extensive in-service training program was conducted during the summer, and it is hoped that this pattern will serve to improve appreciably the quality of the instructional program in the district.

The Course to Democratic Participation

JOSEPH A. KEEFE

TO MEASURE the prospective change or modification within a school, the administrator needs to evaluate the extent to which his staff is actively involved in the participatory process. No plan to advance the standing of the public school can hope to achieve its potential if the administrator lacks the support of his staff. The most efficient, democratic method for achieving this support is through democratic participation.

There is no question that the authoritarian principles of command achieve their results more rapidly. Fear of reprisal and anxiety on the part of individuals over their continuance in a status role are potent weapons to be wielded by the authoritarian administrator. Unfortunately this system does not guarantee the unconditional support which the public school administrator must have from his staff.

How can the administrator achieve this participation? Before he implements any participatory process, the administrator should assess his own concepts of what democratic participation demands of him and acquaint the staff with what it will demand of them. Basically, the delegation of authority and responsibilities must be accompanied by a willingness to permit the individual or individuals involved to exercise the authority delegated to them. If the administrator accepts this fundamental principle of democratic participation, he can feel fairly certain that his efforts will meet with success.

Secondly, the administrator must be aware that democratic participation will demand great patience on his part. He will be required to start where the group is in its knowledge of the techniques of the participatory process. Any attempt on his part to accelerate the group in its learning process will only result in serious damage to its cohesiveness. Such attempts merely indicate that the administrator is lacking in a true appreciation of his role in this dynamic situation.

Lacking the experience in the democratic process, the group must utilize the leadership qualities of the administrator while it develops within itself the latent leadership qualities of its members. It is to this end that the administrator should work. To evaluate and encourage the emerging leadership is an important aspect of the administrator's role. The extent to which he utilizes his findings becomes the measure of his success in accepting the basic premise of democratic participation.

What is the purpose of the group? Does this interrogation merely bring on an exercise in circumlocution? Considering the unorganized group as little better than a mob in its thinking, the administrator must recognize

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the importance of having the group achieve a unity of purpose. Impossible as it may seem when viewed in a cursory manner, achieving a unity of purpose lies within the power of any group, provided its members are willing to adhere to some basic requirements.

Members of any group desire to have some control over the policy which affects them. This is a fundamental need of man in a democratic society. To grant the members of a group this opportunity is not a gesture of munificence on the part of the administrator; it is his duty to provide the opportunities for the members of his staff to share cooperatively in this democratic endeavor.

Operating within the scope of the democratic process, the group can rapidly develop a co-operative attack on those problems which confront them. Permeating the entire discussion phase of the attack must be a realization that conflicts contribute to a wiser decision. It is the administrator's role to provide the "interpretative leadership" at this time. He is the guide who keeps the common objective in view—the Ahab of the group. His own self-direction becomes the beacon light to keep the discussion on its course.

Suggestions being offered in good faith, the administrator has the responsibility to see that they are given a just hearing before the group. To weigh the merits of the suggestion by an evaluation of the person making it is grossly unfair, hardly in keeping with the philosophy of democratic participation. The honest deviate should be encouraged by the administrator, not stifled into abject silence. The fate of the honest deviate should not be the treatment accorded the Ancient Mariner—the fate of a pariah.

That a collective decision results in a collective responsibility for the recommendations and subsequent actions of the group is a corollary which can be accepted by the administrator provided he has given free rein to the group in the process of their decision making. Support for the action process is inherent within the group. It no longer becomes necessary for the administrator to "sell" his policy. The group must stand or fall on its own solution to the problem.

It cannot be denied that the administrator is viewed by the patrons of the school as the leader figure, and as such he must ultimately bear the brunt of any dissatisfaction on the part of the patrons for decisions which they consider to be unsatisfactory. This factor should not stand in the way, however, of the leader's utilizing democratic participation to arrive at the solution to problems. Inability to make decisions and accept their consequences is a weakness which cannot be tolerated in an administrator.

REEFS TO BE AVOIDED IN STAFF PARTICIPATION

Just as the able navigator must know his charts, so it is that the able administrator must be alert to the shoals which may dot the sea of democratic participation. Fortunately these can be avoided if the administrator exercises certain basic cautions.

Two major considerations to avoid disaster are: (1) the staff participation is not relegated to matters of lesser importance, and (2) committees are formed only when they can serve as valid aids in administrative decision making. The answers to these considerations chart the course—the one to the reef, the other to the haven of success.

To spread the gospel of democratic participation and fail to allow the staff the opportunity to become involved in matters of major importance is to scuttle all hope for getting the staff dynamically involved in policy making. Nothing is more obvious than the administrator's feeble efforts to camouflage this type of action by the development of busy work. The product of this deception is resentment on the part of the staff. Resentment results in conflict within the individuals who make up the group. The compensatory behavior exhibited by the individuals involved reduces morale to a low ebb.

Committees can be, and often are, effective devices for mobilizing human efforts. However, it often appears that educational administration has led an all-out drive for the multiplication of them to the point where the escutcheon of educational enterprise reads "Committees Rampant."

James¹ lists the eight major purposes which prompt administration to create committees as: (1) conjoint thinking; (2) coordination; (3) control; (4) depersonalization; (5) preservation of status; (6) camouflage; (7) delay; and (8) indoctrination. He believes that coordination is the most important justification for the use of committees. Through the process of coordination, ideas are reality-tested and subjected to the judgment of many individuals; thus, many persons are marshalled to persuade the larger group of the rightness of the solution when the time for action arises.

To develop this conjoint thinking within the committee and to have the committee serve to influence the thinking of the larger group, the administrator should form his committee by democratic means. Too often the dictatorial mandate of the administrator requisitions the services of committee members. Thus, bearing a resentment toward the administrator for his seeming highhandedness, and lacking any initiative to develop a solution to the problem, the committee members fail in their efforts. This type of occurrence could be eliminated if the administrator took the time to find members of his staff who were willing to participate in the democratic solution to a problem. Coercion would be replaced by confidence and cooperation.

When an administrator appoints a committee to develop a solution to a harrasing problem, he commits himself in some degree to a course of action recommended by the committee. If the administrator could fully realize this in advance of his making the committee appointments, it would eliminate wasted time and serve to make committee serving a more worthy position.

¹H. Thomas James, "Committees in the Administrative Process," *The American School Board Journal*, Vol. 140, No. 2, February 1960, pp. 23-25.

It is unfortunate that the formation of committees can also serve as a bulkhead to protect, at least momentarily, the weak administrator from the stormy task of coming to a decision. Committees utilized for this purpose are scapegoats for the administrator. Woe be to the administrator who appoints to a committee those who see through his designs. They can utilize their power to achieve personal ends without the administrator's being able to prevent it. A man of principle, on the other hand, has the stamina to accept the verbal brickbats which will come his way because of an unpopular decision made by a committee he has appointed.

The formation of committees should be viewed in light of their ability to accomplish the purposes for which they are created. A deliberate decision must be made by the committee originator as to the advisability of utilizing an individual to perform the same function. The results of the committee's activities should be evaluated in terms of the probable expenditure of time and human resources.

Achieving participation must be one of the stated goals of every organizational activity. This approach becomes increasingly important if the administrator desires to see the educational program mature to its fullest capabilities. The administrator who seeks to increase the capacity of individuals for conjoint thinking and cooperative action must shed the autocratic role and become a member of the group. His leadership qualities should be such that his role changing is compatible with his educational philosophy. The able administrator draws upon a philosophy which is a synthesis of the thinking of many individuals—a blend of knowledge and backgrounds in themselves derived from many sources.

A Logical Approach to In-Service Education

EDWARD G. HUNT

PERHAPS "the battle of Waterloo was won on the playing fields of Eton," as Wellington suggested, but the Cold War of today may well be decided in the classrooms of America. In this connection the writer believes that one of the greatest problems now facing the teaching profession is the need for better programs of in-service education. We live in an era when vast stores of newly discovered knowledge must be assimilated into virtually every curriculum area. Promising new methods of

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staff utilization must be explored because of our expanding population. Individual efficiency must be increased through graduate study of various kinds. Under these circumstances, since we must rely heavily upon the professional personnel now in service, there is an urgent need for a logical approach to in-service education.

The term "in-service education," in its broadest sense, refers to all the activities of a school system which promote the professional growth of teachers and administrators. If this definition is kept in mind, no school system need be deterred from the development of an appropriate program because of the size of its staff, inadequate finances, or the pressure of other professional problems.

Professional meetings, for example, can furnish the opportunity for growth to more individuals than any other feature of a good in-service program. A system-wide staff meeting, a school-wide faculty meeting, a department meeting, a principals' meetings—all of these can become vehicles of in-service growth if properly organized. Such meetings should be cooperatively planned by teachers and administrators; they should be largely concerned with instructional matters, not just administrative routine; they should be based upon democratic procedures. Any school system, regardless of its limitations, can profit from such conferences.

A natural outgrowth of such meetings should be the formulation of a sound educational philosophy upon which a school system can build an in-service program suited to its needs. Only when the educational commitments of a system are recognized by a majority of its practitioners can logical plans for improvement be made. Having first determined what we are trying to do, we can then find out how well our efforts are succeeding, and what must be done to increase our effectiveness.

The services of many agencies are available to the school system that can make little or no budgetary provision for in-service education. Colleges and universities in the vicinity can help a school system to improve itself by offering needed extension courses on campus or by conducting local workshops. The state departments of education and the state and local education associations can provide research assistance and consultants. Not to be overlooked is the role of the school system itself. However small, it is an important source of professional talent that should be used in any logical program of in-service education.

When the necessary funds are available, school boards and administrators can do much to strengthen programs that are logically planned. They can provide the financial backing needed for special texts, equipment, and facilities. Even more important, they can encourage greater teacher participation through liberal salary incentives.

Most progressive communities today recognize graduate study for advanced degrees in their salary schedules and thereby encourage teachers to seek professional improvement on an individual basis. A logical extension of this practice is to recognize in-service workshops for added compensation as well, because the school system benefits more directly.

The best time for teachers to participate in curriculum development and to explore new methods of instruction is probably during the summer vacation period when they can work all day long without pressure. Would it not be logical to pay teachers for this time devoted to school problems? If these suggestions seem somewhat Utopian, the writer can only attest that they are now in use in his own system, where participation in local workshops is now logically a condition of employment for new teachers. A liberal policy on sabbatical leaves is another device in encouraging teachers to seek professional improvement.

There is little doubt that, in the years that lie immediately ahead, our American system of free public education will face tremendous challenges. In order to meet these challenges successfully, we must make better use of the skill and devotion of our present teaching force. Only if our programs of inservice education are logically organized and intelligently expanded, can we realize our true professional strength.

The Administrator and the Placement Service

J. HENRY ZANZALARI

THE George-Barden Act of 1946 was designed to promote guidance activities in vocational programs throughout the nation. When Congress authorized this act in 1946, vocational and technical programs in New Jersey were as varied in their organization and administration of guidance services as there were distinctive school systems. These variations comprised a range from the full-time employment of at least one placement counselor to the non-existence of such a school official. The diversities were especially perceptible in regards to placement activities. Since the satisfactory adjustment of the student to the trade for which he was trained is one of the primary purposes of vocational education, efficient placement procedures were essential. Prosser and Allen¹ considered the failure to attain this objective as "... a distinct loss of human resources."

¹ Prosser, Charles A., and Charles R. Allen, *Vocational Education in a Democracy*. New York: The Century Company. 1925. P. 5.

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Jochen² in reporting his data pertaining to the history of vocational education in New Jersey indicated that only one of ten vocational programs studied in 1943 assigned placement activities to a guidance and placement counselor. The remaining nine schools designated placement responsibilities to the principal, the apprentice coordinator, or the shop teachers in the respective schools.

However, in 1946, the allotment of funds for guidance services as prescribed by the George-Barden Act began to stimulate the employment of guidance and placement counselors in New Jersey vocational programs. Presently, as a result of their legislation, seventeen of the nineteen vocational and technical high schools assign the responsibility of placement to a placement counselor.

A study of the nineteen vocational and technical high schools of New Jersey³ indicated that the administrators of these schools had a variety of titles. Of the nineteen administrators, this group comprised thirteen principals, four directors, one assistant director, and one head teacher.

This study of the placement service indicated that, although the supervision of the placement services was the responsibility of the nineteen administrators, nevertheless, in only two instances, was the administrator assigned the responsibility of placing students directly on the job. The practice throughout the state was to assign such placement responsibilities to a guidance and placement counselor. This group of administrators not only reported few such assigned responsibilities in placement activities, but also felt that there was little need for such assignments.

Though the administrators did not have delegated placement duties, all of them participated in the placement function. This participation appeared generally in the form of referral roles. Through previous experiences, the administrators were familiar with numerous industrial, union, and business groups. Frequently, these employers contacted the familiar administrator rather than the unknown placement counselor. The administrators, in turn, referred these requests to the placement office. Thus the administrator has in many instances become a liaison between the employer and the placement office.

When requested to evaluate the placement services, the administrators as a group felt that they worked well with the placement counselors. Such areas as preparations and qualifications of the counselors, adaptation of the placement service to the purposes of the school, the coordination of the placement staff with the remaining faculty, the public relations program of the placement service, and the actual placement of graduates were rated as adequate by the nineteen administrators.

² Jochen, Albert E. "The History and Development of State and Federally Aided Day Trade and Industrial Schools in New Jersey from Their Inception to 1943." Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, Rutgers University, New Brunswick. 1947. 369 pp.

³ Zanzalari, J. Henry. "The Placement Service in New Jersey Vocational and Technical High Schools." Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, Rutgers University, New Brunswick, New Jersey. 1960. 219 pp.

The feeling existed, however, that the guidance and placement counselors needed assistance to perform some of their duties. Suggestions for lightening counselor assignments included the addition of part-time placement counselors and clerical help.

Thus from 1946 to 1960, the nature of the participation of the administrators of the vocational and technical high schools in New Jersey has changed. Where earlier the administrator had the responsibility for directly placing vocational graduates in the trades for which they were trained, now they have referral roles in the placement function. The coordination between administrator and placement counselor has led to greater efficiency in attaining the objectives of the placement service in vocational education—the adjustment of the vocational graduate to the trade for which he was trained.

Admirable Administration

RICHARD L. LOUGHLIN

ACCEPTING additional responsibility for improved service is part of professional life. The return is enhanced prestige. Any officer selected to administer an organization can help make the group more responsive and more responsible, provided he has a sound philosophy of leadership. What constitutes good leadership? To Americans, six principles are pivotal.

1. *Human beings are sensitive.* "You philosophers are lucky men," said Catherine the Great of Russia. "You write on paper, and paper is patient. Unfortunate Empress that I am, I write on the susceptible skins of human beings." Every administrator writes on the sensitive skins of others. To be admirable, he must conscientiously employ a mental hygiene approach. He must be patient, charitable, courteous, and democratic in all his dealings. St. Jerome warns us that it is a grievous sin to make another mortal unhappy, unnecessarily. Only an administrator who has *humility*, *humanity*, and *humor* is immune to *humbug*. Under such a leader, things and other people *hum*. He sets free the creative forces of the group in solving the problems confronting it. Protected from the "neurosis of perfection," he survives even failures, which become the building materials of later, "statelier mansions." Using consultation and consensus, he evolves written policies that meet with readier acceptance,

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because they have been jointly prepared and cooperatively tested. In such an organization, every man feels that he is as good as the next and better than most, to borrow Mr. Dooley's definition of democracy.

2. *Individuals are unique.* To take an analogy from the vegetable world, the lily family includes not only the tulip, but also the onion. In like manner, some members of an organization seem to be lillies or tulips; they display them and rejoice over them. On the other hand, the onions can flavor the social stew, even though you weep over them. In dealing with individuals, it's better to be sure than sorry. The French have two wise sayings every administrator should know: (1) "*Tout comprendre, tout pardonner.*" (To understand all is to forgive all.) (2) "If every man's troubles were written on his forehead, there would be no unkindness." Keep in mind that for a kind word most men will sweat their hearts out. Provide "safety valves"—face-saving devices, always. Remember that each member's psychological context is unique. Native equipment, training, and experiences have made him what he is. This is what Ulysses meant when, upon his return to Ithaca, he said: "I am a part of all whom I have met." The average individual is a statistical identity, only.

3. *Stress strengths and weaknesses wither.* In making assignments, recognize and utilize special talents of individual members to upgrade and, as it were, "cross-fertilize" all. By delegating authority to reliable colleagues, the leader stimulates self-growth in others, inspiring them to contribute good things. By rotating undesirable assignments, by making equitable and impartial appointments, by anticipating difficulties, and by taking mitigating action, the administrator induces loyal support. By giving public recognition and encouragement to contributing colleagues, by publicizing their achievements, and by cheerfully giving credit where credit is due, he welds them into a productive unit. By showing solicitation for the health and welfare of each member, by observing the social amenities, and by practicing good comradeship—without loss of dignity—he can create a "family" atmosphere. By establishing liaison with other groups or agencies, he can help his organization extend the area of its benign influence. By making periodic evaluations of himself, of his committees, and of his program in an objective, constructive, and cooperative fashion—not to fix blame but to improve service and to reduce roadblocks to rubble—he can achieve gradual revisions of policies, procedures, and/or programs to meet changing needs and circumstances. "Leadership," says Robert B. Myers, "is the product of interaction, not status or position." By giving the best of himself and by constantly turning the spotlight on the best in others, the administrator uses positive forces to overbalance any negative factors in his organization. Above all, inspiration—not irritation—is the function of leadership!

4. *Administration is a patient step-by-step process.* "Hasten slowly" and systematically. Although authorities may differ on the number and order of the steps involved in the administrative process, all agree that these factors play a part: (1) perceiving the problem; (2) gathering the

data; (3) making the decision; (4) planning the change; (5) organizing the work; (6) communicating the purposes and procedures involved; (7) influencing those affected; (8) coordinating the activities; (9) evaluating the results; and (10) revising the program in the light of experience. In the planning, interpreting, doing, and appraising stages—to telescope the ten steps into four—the leader can increase his effectiveness by minimizing his own authority, by manifesting sincerity, by maintaining two-way communication, by employing positive approaches, by attacking easier problems first to gain the stimulus of initial success, and by providing personal incentives to as many as possible through the dynamics of joint deliberation, broad participation, individual involvement, and general consensus.

5. *Force is feeble.* In the peroration of Edmund Burke's speech "On Conciliation with the Colonies," we learn that force is a weak method of dealing with people because it is temporary, uncertain, destructive, and exhausting. History proves the pusillanimity of the power ruler over and over again. Therefore, let the administrator avoid power moves, using them infrequently and reluctantly, as a last resort, in protecting the organization from misfits, incompetents, and subversives. Nevertheless, he must have the courage to act firmly, albeit fairly, to protect the purposes of the group from possible distortion, corruption, or destruction. Because a threat-free climate is conducive to good human relations and to maximum productivity, he should assume, initially, that every member is trying to do his best for the group. Usually, most members of an organization want to do good—at least apparent good. In offering them the fifth freedom, "the freedom to live up to one's best self," the leader insures that the organization has both the flexibility and the stability essential to security. Here, a medieval motto is apropos: "In imperatives, unity; in matters of opinion, liberty; in all things, charity."

6. *Stoop to conquer.* Psychologists remind us that all people need seven things: (1) love; (2) a feeling of acceptance or belongingness; (3) knowledge; (4) participation; (5) responsibility; (6) respect; (7) the right of appeal. All of the above items are implied in reverse English in the old Irish saying: "Tis better to be fighting than lonely." The administrator must minister to the basic needs of his flock, just as Jesus Christ washed the feet of His disciples in order to show them that the master is the servant. (On another occasion, you will recall, He drove home the same principle by pointing out that the hireling saves his own hide; whereas the good shepherd lays down his life for his sheep. On a third occasion, He instructed them: "Learn of Me for I am meek and humble of heart.") St. Augustine put it in a lovely line: "Love and then do as you please."

To summarize, the six pivotal principles of leadership are: (1) human beings are sensitive; (2) individuals are unique; (3) stress strengths and weaknesses wither; (4) administration is a patient step-by-step process;

(5) force is feeble; and (6) stoop to conquer. Perhaps, only a saintly person can fill this bill of rights and responsibilities. In the ultimate analysis, Leon Bloy was right in saying that the only real tragedy was in our not becoming saints. Admirable administration is ministration to the organization, which means to our fellowmen. It is a way of life that can win for the leader life everlasting and bring to his organization a hint of eternal peace, "the peace that passeth understanding."

Administrators' Responsibilities in Improving Our Schools

WALDO R. BANKS

A WHOLE galaxy of problems faces American education in our schools today, especially on the elementary and secondary levels. It has been said that students on these levels are far inferior to what they were a decade ago; that their teachers, most of whom are inadequately prepared with too many "education" courses, are just "baby sitting"; and that there is entirely too much tomfoolery *en toto*.

Some such indictments are undoubtedly warranted, but these faults are not so gigantic that good administrators could not ameliorate the deplorable situation to which critics refer. It is the contention of this writer that the catalyst needed to improve our schools is strong leadership on the state, intermediate, and local levels; that the fundamental requisite to good schools is a high quality of leadership; and that too much supervision exists today in theory, not enough in practice.

To many present-day administrators, the concept of leadership is totally lacking or extremely vague. The autocratic concept of supervision is still found in a large number of schools. Arising in a bygone day, it has continued partly because of lack of knowledge on the part of principals and superintendents of other and better modes of supervision, partly because of their presumed superior preparation, and partly because of the generous measure of authority vested in them.¹

Granted, there are undoubtedly some advantages to autocratic supervision, but basically this concept has outlived its usefulness just as the horse and buggy did with the advent of the automobile. Autocratic supervision suppresses teaching initiative and originality and encourages mediocrity and pattern teaching. Independent and intelligent efforts by teach-

¹ Boardman, Charles W. *Democratic Supervision in Secondary Schools*. New York: Houghton Mifflin Company. 1953.

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ers to find the best methods by which they can teach and to adjust their methods to the individual abilities of their pupils are discouraged. The autocrat, whether he knows it or not, too often develops fear and distrust among his teachers; and he causes to breed among his faculty insincerity and dishonesty, all of which too frequently leads to a moral disintegration among a group of could-be competent and effective educators.

Many principals who are adequately prepared and capable of doing their jobs are often unable to perform them.² In smaller high schools, they are obligated to spend too much time teaching classes, counting milk money, buying food for the hot-lunch programs, and acting as half-time secretaries. In larger high schools, their time is absorbed in making out a preponderance of reports and attending meetings. In either case, there is not enough time for real program planning and supervision.

The departmentalized system, prevalent in many large high schools, can be workable if the department heads have been selected on the basis of qualification, not time in service, and if the heads are intrusted to do the work assigned them. With each assignment of responsibility, the principal should delegate authority to carry out that assignment. It is not possible or desirable for the principal to supervise personally all the details connected with the management of a secondary school; but, unless he really delegates both authority and responsibility, he may find himself faced with such a task.³

The job of the principal is analogous to the symphony conductor under whose hand a hundred or so highly specialized and very different talents become a single and harmonious effort of great effectiveness. No conductor can play every musical instrument; neither can one principal be adequately skilled in every subject matter that he is called upon to supervise. Even so, the principal, just as the conductor, should be able to tell when all members of his orchestra are in tune.

There are some educational authorities who recommend abandoning the line-and-staff organizational plan which is so common in our high schools. They maintain that this type of organization is antagonistic to the present concept of unity and equality among all members of the educational profession, and that teachers, who are nearly as well educated today as are administrators, can surely be trusted to exercise some voice in school administration.⁴ Such authorities would have all principals embrace the concept and practice of group leadership.

Group leadership is all very well and good, but its limitations must be recognized in order to avoid possible pitfalls. The following limitations seem worthy of some consideration:

² Edmondson, J. B. *The Administration of the Secondary School*, 4th ed. New York: Macmillan Company, 1953.

³ French, Will, et. al. *American High School Administration: Play and Practice*, Rev. ed. New York: Rinehart and Company, Inc. 1957.

⁴ Edmondson, J. B., *op. cit.*

1. The indefiniteness of the plan can easily lead to teacher insecurity, frustration, and inefficiency.
2. All teachers are not qualified to make important decisions.
3. Some teachers are hesitant to accept the responsibility of leadership.
4. Teachers are sufficiently busy with grading papers, collecting money, and making out reports.
5. Teachers are being paid to teach, not to administrate.

Some writers on the problems confronting high-school administrators contend that confusion is a resultant of the neglect of superintendents to define the duties of the subject matter supervisors who work within the high schools but who are under the direct supervision of the superintendent. Sometimes the supervisors get the idea that they are responsible for improving instruction in their particular subjects even if it means over the dead body of the principals. They, therefore, tend to operate in the high schools, not as supervisory officers, but as administrative (line) officers.⁵ In such a situation, administrative responsibility in a high school is divided among several supervisors and the principal, violating the sound administrative principle that at one time and one place one person and one person only must be in charge.

Confusion, inefficiency, and much ill will can be avoided if it is agreed that the principal is in full charge at the school and that the supervisors serve in an advisory capacity only. The supervisor is considered an expert, a resource person, a consultant in his specialization.⁶

Another job of the principal is to assign to the teacher the job for which he is best qualified to perform. Incompetent teachers should not be assigned to teach slow learners just because they (the teachers) are incompetent. Talented teachers should not be assigned to teach rapid learners just because they (the teachers) are talented. Personnel should be assigned to do the job for which they are best qualified, academically and personally.

Special attention should be given to beginning teachers. They should be given free reign to prove themselves and try out their fresh ideas. They should not be stifled and discouraged either by the administration or the older teachers. Beginning teachers should not be given initiation assignments. They, as other teachers, must be given planning time. They should be given an opportunity to witness expert teaching being done by long serviced teachers, some of whom have not, contrary to much current thinking, failed to keep abreast with modern trends and techniques of teaching.

This does not mean, however, that beginning teachers are the only ones who need close supervision. Older teachers may become potted plants who feel that the old way is the best way. These teachers need to be re-educated to modern techniques of instruction. Many of them have an aversion to change which is all too often characteristic of their age. There

⁵ French, Will, *op. cit.*

⁶ Edmondson, J. B., *op. cit.*

has been an arrest in their growth.⁷ The job of the high-school principal is to encourage them to sprout again.

The administrator, whose job is manifold, is obligated to conduct a symphony of subject matter experts and to bring order to a confusing, fear-ridden, and frustrating situation that will surely become worse unless they (the administrators) take a firm stand and do the kind of job for which they are remunerated. This does not mean defying boards of education; it does mean, however, that administrators must stop being jellyfish and make use of their professional competency in the best way possible.

⁷ Sharp, George. *Curriculum Development as Re-Education of the Teacher*. New York: Bureau of Publication, Teachers College, Columbia University. 1951.

Recent Court Rulings on Pupil Transportation

HAROLD H. PUNKE

IN EARLIER publications¹ the author reviewed the rulings of our major state and Federal courts, handed down by the dates indicated, on transporting pupils to and from school at public expense. This article deals with cases decided since those publications appeared. These recent cases are grouped under four headings.

GENERAL AUTHORITY AND DUTY TO PROVIDE TRANSPORTATION

Several cases relate to general powers and duties regarding transportation. Four involve transportation beyond district limits. A Wisconsin dispute² concerned a statute which provided: "When, on account of

¹ The sources are:

a. *Law and Liability in Pupil Transportation*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, (1943) 291 pp.

b. "Care, Injury, and Tort Liability in Pupil Transportation," *American School Board Journal* (in four parts), 131:35-36 (Oct. 1955); 131:33-35 (Nov. 1955); 131:39-40 (Dec. 1955; 132:40-42 (Feb. 1956).

c. "Discretion of School Officials in Providing Pupil Transportation," *Educational Administration and Supervision*, 42:108-120 (Feb. 1956).

d. "Deciding Whether Pupils Ride or Walk," *The School Executive*, 75:87-90 (March 1956).

e. "Contractual Relationships in Pupil Transportation," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, 40:86-97 (May 1956).

² *Herman v. Medicine Lodge School District No. 8* (1956), 71 N.W. 2d. 323.

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shorter distance and other convenience, it is to the best interest of a school district to send pupils into another school district, the district sending such pupils, with the approval of the county superintendent of schools," may pay tuition and transportation to and from the school in the receiving district. There were 22 school-age children in the sending district, all but three of whom lived within $2\frac{1}{2}$ miles of School No. 1 in that district. However the board decided not to open this school, but to transport the children to the Newport school, an acknowledgedly better school about fourteen bus miles away in another district. The board later opened school No. 1, by order of the lower court, but continued to transport ten children to Newport. In attacking the continued transportation to Newport, it was contended that since "convenience" followed "shorter distance" in the statute, any convenience involved had to relate to shorter distance from school. It was also contended that the statute was not a "child benefit" act, and that convenience related only to the convenience of the district—not that of the child. In upholding the board, the higher court reasoned that legislation providing for school consolidation and pupil transportation pointed in the "child benefit" direction, as did legislation providing for non-profit school lunches. The court further reasoned that it was probably better for a child to be transported fourteen miles twice a day in a comfortable bus, than for him to walk two miles—especially in winter—and that the board could take into account the better quality of education available at Newport. The court stated that the board, with the superintendent's approval, was authorized to determine the conditions under which children would be transported to another district.

The Palmer Case³ similarly involved transporting pupils to school outside the home district. Because of defective procedure, board effort to transfer certain pupils to a school in an adjoining district was void. However, two parents used private conveyances to transport these children to such a school. A statute said that every child "shall be required to attend the public schools in the district of its residence, or in some other district to which it may be transferred as provided by law." The complaint was that the children in question had not been legally transferred, and should be required to attend school in their resident district. The court rejected the contention, pointing out that parents met compulsory school attendance requirements by sending their children to a private, parochial, or other school of appropriate grade, regardless of whether that school was within or outside the home district. Of course nobody in the resident district could seek an injunction to prevent the other district from receiving the children. Only a taxpayer in the receiving district could institute such action.

Mississippi patrons⁴ sought to compel the county board to provide transportation to a school outside the county, which the pupils concerned

³ Palmer v. District Trustees of District No. 21 (Tex., 1956), 289 S.W. 2d. 344.

⁴ Granada County School Board v. Provine (1955), 224 Miss. 574, 80 So. 2d. 798, 81 So. 2d. 694.

might legally attend. All school districts were abolished by a general school reorganization act, approved on December 28, 1953. However, the act stipulated that each district should continue to exercise all its existing rights and prerogatives "until such school district shall be reconstituted or the territory thereof consolidated with other territory as is hereinafter prescribed." The Act required that reorganization be completed by July 1, 1957. On June 4, 1953, the Granada County School Board moved to "pay transportation and tuition same rate as last year costs to Big Creek Consolidated School in Calhoun County for the children of the Mt. Nebo and Cole's Creek Districts for the year 1953-54 school session and 1954-55, transportation be furnished to Gore Springs in this county." This board action did not legally transfer the children to Gore Springs, but only provided for their transportation to that point. No subsequent board action made such a legal transfer. Pupils of the Mt. Nebo and Cole's Creek districts were legally attending the Big Creek school until the Granada board took the action stipulated by the 1953 act—which must be not later than July 1, 1957. In the autumn of 1954, the children involved were entitled to transportation to the Big Creek school.

Schutte⁵ attempted to compel the local board to transport his handicapped son to the nearest suitable school, which was outside the district and some thirty-five miles from the nearest school in the district. General education statutes provided for transportation, in some cases, to a school outside the district. However a special act governed the education of handicapped children, and referred to transporting them to a school within the home district. The special act also required the board to include an item in the budget for educating each handicapped child, "not less than the regular per pupil cost in the school of the district." Provision was also made for additional funds from state sources. Among other things the court noted that the special act was passed in 1941, whereas the general act was passed in 1927 and revised in 1955. The court reasoned that if the legislature had intended to provide for the education and transportation of handicapped children through the general education act, it could easily have done so in the 1955 revision. The local district was liable for transportation of the handicapped only to a school within the district—as stipulated in the special act.

Transportation may be compulsory regarding one type of school, and discretionary regarding another type. If so, the discretionary transportation may differ considerably from that which is compulsory. Thus a Kentucky act⁶ stipulated that school boards "shall furnish transportation from their general funds or otherwise for pupils of elementary grade who do not reside within reasonable walking distance of the school provided for them . . . and may provide transportation from its general funds or otherwise for any pupil of any grade" who does not live within reasonable walking distance of school. The court held that "shall furnish" made

⁵ Schutte v. Decker (1957), 164 Neb., 582, 83 N.W. 2d. 69.

⁶ Japs v. Board of Education of Jefferson County (1956), 291 S.W. 2d. 825.

transportation to the elementary school compulsory, under the conditions noted, whereas "may provide" made transportation to high school discretionary. In regard to the source of transportation funds, "or otherwise" did not contemplate charging a fee of elementary pupils but referred to other non-revenue funds that might come into board hands. However, since transportation to high school was discretionary, necessary funds might come from sources other than those involved in transporting elementary pupils. The wide discretion of the board to take any reasonable action necessary to promote education empowered it to charge a reasonable fare of high-school pupils and also to exempt indigent high-school pupils from paying such fare. The exemption was comparable to supplying free textbooks and supplies to such pupils, reasoned the court. However, the court further ruled that where a fee was charged, a high-school pupil who lived within reasonable walking distance of school was not by right entitled to ride the bus simply by tendering his fare. This was a matter to be determined by reasonable board rules.

Dispute in the *Gandt Case*⁷ related to calculating distance from school, as justifying transportation. The statute required transportation if the pupil resided two miles or more from the nearest school that he might attend. An earlier case⁸ held that travel by private road, necessary to reach a public highway, was part of the distance from school. Measurements were to be made along the "closest usually traveled route." On one occasion the plaintiff and board members measured the distance as eleven feet short of two miles. Plaintiff contended that the measurement deviated from the usually traveled route in that it cut across his lawn. Evidence indicated no path for cutting across. About three years later the distance was remeasured, without cutting across the lawn. The measurement was checked several times, and it was found that the distance somewhat exceeded two miles. The board contended that the earlier measurement should prevail, but the court accepted the distance as shown upon re-measurement.

A subsidiary point involved the construction of a new drive on the far side of the plaintiff's house, by which the distance without doubt exceeded two miles. The attorney general had ruled that a changed private roadway, which increased the distance from school and brought a child under the transportation statute, should not be used in calculating distance for transportation purposes—if the aim of the change was to secure district transportation. But since the court accepted the distance indicated on re-measurement as noted, it did not rule on this point.

The right of a board to change transportation routes or practices was challenged in a further Wisconsin case.⁹ The annual district meeting on

⁷ *Gandt v. Joint School District No. 3* (1958), 4 Wis. 2d. 419, 90 N.W. 2d. 549.

⁸ *Pagel v. School District* (1924), 184 Wis. 251, 199 N.W. 67.

⁹ *State ex rel. Miller v. Joint School District No. 1* (1958), 5 Wis. 2d. 16, 92 N.W. 2d. 232.

July 8, 1957, resolved to pick up certain children at their homes, rather than at the point where their private lanes reached the highway. On August 13, 1957, a statute became effective which stipulated: "The location and extent of all public school bus routes for the transportation of pupils shall be determined by the school board of the district. . . . In case of disagreements on approval of bus routes, the decision of the state superintendent shall control." In September of 1957, the board resolved that it would not enter certain long driveways to pick up and return children at their homes—the longest of which was seven tenths of a mile. Petitioners sought to compel the board to rescind its September resolution, claiming that the board was arbitrary and proceeded retroactively in applying the statute and board resolution—after the district meeting had decided otherwise. The court held that determination of bus routes was in the hands of the board and not of the district meeting, that there was nothing arbitrary about the board's refusing to follow the district resolution, and that board action was intended to govern the future with nothing retroactive about it.

The status of a transportation item in the budget was the basis of a Massachusetts dispute.¹⁰ The statute did not specify that the town must provide pupil transportation, as certain other school items were specified. However a transportation item might be included if the town so desired, and such an item was here included. The annual town meeting rejected the budget submitted by the school committee, but accepted a somewhat reduced school budget. The court regarded the action at the meeting as constituting an "across the board" reduction in the budget, requiring the transportation fund to accept its proportionate share of reduction.

A Virginia suit¹¹ indirectly bore on the authority to supply pupil transportation in that the court reasoned from such transportation in authorizing the State Highway Commission to operate certain shuttle buses. A bridge-tunnel project was to span the water at Hampton Roads, but there was no provision for pedestrians to use the project. It was contended that legislation which provided for the commission to operate shuttle buses from one end of the project to the other, for accommodating pedestrians, violated a section of the state constitution which forbade the state to engage in "any work of internal improvement, except public roads and public parks." The court reasoned that maintaining the state highway system was a government function, the same as maintaining a system of free public schools—and noted that the state had authority to supply pupil transportation as part of its governmental function of maintaining schools. In regard to the project in question, the court further reasoned: "Such a flexible bus operation for the accommodation of pedestrians is as necessary and vital to the proper operation of the bridge-tunnel project as the bus operation for the transportation of pupils is to the maintenance of 'an efficient system of public free schools.'"

¹⁰ *Graves v. Town of Fairhaven* (1959), 155 N.E. 2d. 178.

¹¹ *Almond v. Day* (1957), 199 Va. 1, 97 S.E. 2d. 824.

BUS DRIVERS

Among the cases regarding bus drivers, four relate to employment and compensation. A Louisiana decision¹² concerned a board rule that all drivers over 60 years old must have a physical examination twice a year, given by a physician which the board designated. The plaintiff was a tenure driver, age 62 years, who had been examined on three occasions during August. The physician's report showed that she suffered from nervousness and that she had an enlarged heart, and high blood pressure. The physician testified that it was not in the best interests or safety of the children for her to continue as driver. Among statutory bases for discharging a driver was "disability to perform his duties." The board rule concerning the physical examination was held to be reasonable, as was the discontinuance of service by a driver found to be physically unfit. Discharging the plaintiff was reasonable action.

Two cases involved bidding on driver contracts. Section 16,273 of the California Education Code¹³ defined "school bus" as related to pupil transportation, but made exceptions of certain vehicles covered by the Vehicle Code. The exceptions related essentially to pleasure cars for not over seven persons, common carriers meeting requirements of the Public Service Commission, and vehicles of municipally owned transit systems. The requirements under section 16,273 were more strict than those of the Vehicle Code. It was contended that section 16,273 was unconstitutional, as discriminating among bidders for the same kind of work—transporting pupils to school. In upholding section 16,273, the court said that it classified by general description of transportation equipment. There was no favoritism of one or more carriers against others, or of one municipally owned system against others. Neither were heavier burdens placed on one or more persons operating school buses than on others. These classifications were reasonable.

The extent of a bidder's financial obligation was the basis of a New Jersey dispute.¹⁴ A taxi company was among bidders for contracts covering different routes. About a week after bids were opened, the company requested in writing that its bid for Route 10 be withdrawn. The company's president was at a board meeting about three weeks later, at which he orally repeated the request. However, at that meeting, the board awarded the company several contracts, including that for Route 10. A statute required a bidder to deposit with his bid an amount equal to five per cent of the annual contract price. However when the company refused to transport pupils on Route 10, the board sought to recover damages equivalent to the difference between the company's bid and the next lowest bidder. The company countered with an effort to recover its

¹² Weisgerber v. East Baton Rouge Parish School Board (1955), 81 So. 2d. 471.

¹³ Willingham v. San Diego Unified School District (1957), 154 Cal. App. 2d. 11, 315 P. 2d. 368.

¹⁴ Board of Education of Fair Lawn v. Fair Lawn Plaza Taxi, Inc. (1959), 55 N. J. Super. 357, 150 A. 2d. 793.

deposit, contending that no contractual obligations had actually been established, but only certain "preliminary steps" taken. The court held that the bid entitled the board to enter into a contract on the conditions set forth, and to declare the deposit forfeited if the bidder wrongfully refused to enter into a performance contract. However, the court also held that there could be no recovery from the bidder beyond the amount of his deposit. The statute contemplated that the deposit money would reimburse the board for loss and expense if a low bidder refused to contract, reasoned the court.

A 1949 Georgia statute¹⁵ provided for adding four cents per mile per month to the basic 1946-47 salary of bus drivers. Dispute related to determining the compensation of the driver on Route 8. The district had no basic salary for that route before the 1947-48 school year. The driver contended that the basic salary for 1947-48 should be used in determining his pay for 1949-50—the year in dispute. The court refused to grant the mandamus sought to compel the board to pay four cents on the basis of the 1947-48 salary. The court reasoned that the 1949-50 salary might already include the four-cent provision, and that under the statute only the year 1946-47 could be used as the basic year.

Several cases relate to the quality of performance on bus-driver contracts, and the basis for discharging drivers. Earlier reference was made to discharging a woman driver, 62 years old because of poor physical condition.¹⁶ Question as to what constitutes "valid reasons" for discharging a probationary driver arose in the Ouachita Case.¹⁷ A statute provided that during his three-year probationary period, a driver could not be discharged by a board except upon the written recommendation of the superintendent accompanied by valid reasons. The court pointed to an earlier decision¹⁸ as indicating that the driver tenure act was for the benefit of drivers and to prevent boards from discharging them with no designated cause. The Ouachita driver lived about 5½ miles from the end of his bus route, and it took him about 15 minutes to get home from the end of the route. The superintendent recommended that this driver be not re-employed because he lived too far from the end of his route, adding that a driver living on the route could better communicate with parents when children are discharged from the bus. No other basis for discharge was offered. The driver had performed his work punctually and without complaint by anyone. Moreover, the new driver employed also lived beyond the end of the bus route. The court reinstated the discharged driver.

However, the court sustained the board in discharging a probationary driver in the Chantlin Case,¹⁹ governed by the same statute as prevailed

¹⁵ *Smith v. Kicklighter* (1957), 213 Ga. 15, 96 S.E. 2d. 885.

¹⁶ *Weisgerger v. East Baton Rouge Parish School Board* (1955), 81 So. 2d. 471.

¹⁷ *Kilpatrick v. Ouachita Parish School Board* (1956), 91 So. 2d. 453.

¹⁸ *Miller v. Rapides Parish School Board* (1946), 209 La. 897, 25 So. 2d. 623.

¹⁹ *Chantlin v. Acadia Parish School Board* (1958), 100 So. 2d. 908.

in the Ouachita suit. The reason given by the superintendent in the Chantlin Case was that the driver refused to transport pupils to extra-curricular activities, such as school plays, musical programs, *etc.*, which the superintendent considered beneficial to any child. Failure to transport related specifically to Christmas and end-of-the-year school programs, despite urgent requests by the principal. The contract did not provide for transportation to extracurricular activities, except for three specific instances—Rice Festival, Parish Rally, and 4-H Club Day. But other drivers from the same school customarily transported pupils to other extra-curricular activities, charging 25 cents to 35 cents per pupil for the service. There appeared some uncertainty concerning the number of children and activities involved. The plaintiff stated that only one child had requested the kind of transportation in dispute, and to only one activity. He said that he refused this transportation, suggesting that the child get his parents to transport him. In upholding board action, the court considered that "valid reasons" gave the board wide discretion, and said that the board might look upon the plaintiff as a driver who would grudgingly perform his responsibilities rather than cooperate wholeheartedly—if he became a permanent employee.

A minor point concerned wording of the board's resolution: "that the superintendent be authorized to discharge" the driver for "neglect of duty." It was objected that the resolution delegated to the superintendent power to discharge the driver, whereas the statute made such action a responsibility of the board. The court rejected this logic, stating that the board plainly indicated its action—with the superintendent only communicating the official decision to the plaintiff.

Non-cooperation was also the basis for discharging a Pennsylvania driver.²⁰ The contract obligated the driver "to provide transportation . . . to and from such points, along and over such routes, and at the times set forth in the schedule attached hereto." The contract also stipulated that the route and stops shall be determined by the board, "and may be modified as occasion demands." The driver was not to deviate from the designated route except upon written consent of the board. The board changed the route, but the new route was over comparable roads and involved no greater mileage than the old route. The driver refused to pick up children along the new route, since it was not on the schedule attached to the contract. The court held that other sections of the contract authorized the board to modify routes—as was necessary because of such facts as that families move around within a community and children graduate or otherwise leave school. The driver was unable to recover pay that was withheld from him and paid by the board to a new driver.

Effort of a board to establish its arbitrary conception as to satisfactory performance on a transportation contract was the basis of an Oregon suit.²¹ The driver's two-year contract stipulated that he was to have an

²⁰ *Yocum v. Smithfield-Juniata Joint School District* (1954), 3 D. and C. 2d. 541.

²¹ *Johnson v. School District No. 12* (1957), 210 Ore. 585, 312 P. 2d. 591.

option for an additional three years, "if a bus is run and his services have been satisfactory." The driver was hired by District 4, and furnished his own bus. This district was later consolidated into District 12—which assumed outstanding obligations of District 4. In due time, the driver notified District 12 that he chose to exercise his option, but District 12 refused to accept his services and operated its own bus over the route concerned. District 12 contended that it was sole judge of what constituted satisfactory performance, as in cases involving an obligation of the performer to satisfy personal taste or fancy of the party for whom the work is done. The court reasoned that the district's logic might apply to contracts such as relate to painting a portrait, but that there were fairly objective bases for determining satisfactory performance on pupil transportation contracts; namely, what reasonable men would accept under the circumstances. There appeared to be nothing of consequence to show unsatisfactory performance by the plaintiff driver.

One Pennsylvania case²² involved controversy over driver negligence in a pupil injury—and the amount of damages awarded. As the bus was headed in a southerly direction on a state highway about 4:15 P.M. on January 19, it stopped on the opposite side of the road from the home of the seven-year-old Turner boy. Through his mirror driver Coryea could see the road back to a curve, about 580 feet. As the bus stopped, he noticed a car approaching from the rear, but it stopped behind the bus. Several children alighted before young Turner did. Upon alighting, he stood next to the right front corner of the bus, awaiting a signal from Coryea to cross. Coryea checked traffic front and rear before signaling for Turner to cross. When the boy arrived at the left front corner of the bus, Coryea heard a horn. There was a truck immediately beside the bus. Coryea sounded his horn. According to previous instruction of bus children, this meant for Turner to return toward the bus. However the boy was then half way across the northbound lane, where he was hit by the truck that was passing the bus. The boy suffered four fractures of the pelvis; trauma of the urinary tract, contusions of the forehead, the soft tissue of the abdomen, and internal organs; a cerebral concussion; and nervous shock. At the trial sixteen months later, he was still very nervous. There also remained some calcification and tenderness about the head of the femur, which doctors testified would continue for six to eight months. The doctors said he would need periodic examinations for three or four years.

In alleging that Coryea was negligent, it was argued that he could place no reliance on the law that vehicles must stop when approaching a school bus discharging pupils. The court rejected this logic. It reasoned that the bus driver has the same basis for relying on the law in the situation involved as a car driver, with the green light in his favor at a street intersection, has in assuming that drivers facing the red light will obey the law and stop. There was no bus-driver negligence. The jury allowed

²² *Turner v. Yourga* (1956), 15 D. and C. 2d. 762.

the child \$2,500 in damages, and allowed the parents \$3,290—of which \$790 was for out-of-pocket expense. It was charged that the amount allowed the parents was excessive. The court recognized the allowance to the parents as somewhat high relative to the amount allowed the boy, but said that since the total allowance of \$5,790 was not excessive the relative allocation to parents and child would not be disturbed.

An Ohio case²³ involved bus-driver retirement benefits. Transportation contracts ranged from that involving a corporation which operated several buses to that with an individual to furnish one bus and one driver. The statute provided: "‘Employee’ means any person regularly employed in the public schools of the state who is not a teacher. . . . In all cases of doubt the school employees retirement board shall determine whether any person is an employee." Statutes made it the duty of the board to establish bus depots and time schedules, and also to certify drivers as to age, moral character, and physical fitness. Evidence showed that principals routed the buses, with changes in routes as the board might desire—so as best to serve the children. Drivers agreed to observe carefully all standards required by statute or by board rules. The court reasoned that the existence of an employer-employee relationship depends on the right of the one for whom the work is done to control the manner or means of doing it. The court held that the control which the board had over the bus drivers, through statutes and board rules, controlled the manner of transporting the children in such a way as to establish an employer-employee relationship between the board and the drivers. Such drivers were entitled to retirement benefits.

INSURANCE PROTECTING THE PUBLIC AGAINST INJURY BY SCHOOL BUSES

Three Georgia cases relate to a 1949 act authorizing school boards to procure insurance protecting members of the general public against injury, death, or property damage resulting from negligent operation of school buses. The act authorized no legal obligation against the school district, and provided that where an insurance company inserted in its policy language implying such liability, the company would be estopped from denying liability under the policy because of non-liability of the district.

In the first of these cases,²⁴ the plaintiff charged negligence by the board for failure to check on the competence of the bus driver. There was of course no corporate liability of the board. And the court pointed out that board members acting in good faith for the county were not individually liable for their own negligence—unless hiring the driver in question amounted to malicious, wilful, or wanton conduct. Hiring said driver did not constitute such conduct, in the absence of allegations that the driver was generally known to be reckless and incompetent. There was no individual liability of board members. But the court held that an

²³ Board of Education of Cincinnati v. Rhodes (1959), 162 N.E. 2d. 888.

²⁴ Krasner v. Harper (1954), 90 Ga. App. 128, 82 S.E. 2d. 267.

injured member of the public could bring action directly against the insurance company, under a policy which provided insurance for such a member against injury, death, or property damage because of negligent bus operation.

Two points were involved in the Keefe Decision.²⁵ (1) A 1955 act empowered counties, municipalities, and other political subdivisions of the state to procure automobile insurance, for protecting the public against negligent acts of persons operating vehicles for said political subdivisions. The court reasoned that, in passing the 1955 act, the legislature was presumed to know the provisions of the 1949 act, and intended for the 1955 act to apply to subdivisions other than school districts. The 1955 act did not repeal the 1949 act, said the court, and insurance procured by a school district was presumed to be under the 1949 act. (2) The policy involved in the suit stipulated that a determination of board liability must be made either by suit or by agreement between the board, the insurance company, and the third-party claimant, before the claimant could bring action against the policy. The court held this stipulation to be void, and held that the claimant could sue the insurance company directly without any prior action involving the board. This issue, said the court, was settled by the Krasner Case.

In the third case²⁶ it was alleged that the 1949 act *required* the school board to procure the insurance protecting members of the general public. In substantiation, the title of the act was cited. The title read: "An act authorizing and requiring the various school boards of the counties . . . to cause policies of insurance to be issued insuring the children riding therein (in school buses) as well as the general public." The court reasoned that the title was not controlling, in view of subsequent sections of the act which required the insurance protecting children who were riding the buses, but only authorized insurance to protect the general public. For a member of the general public to recover for injury suffered because of negligent bus operation, he must show that the insurance procured did in fact protect him.

TRANSPORTATION TO PAROCHIAL SCHOOLS AT PUBLIC EXPENSE

Four recent cases have involved the use of public funds for transporting children to parochial school. Some of these relate to principles considered in the Everson Case,²⁷ decided by the Supreme Court of the United States in 1947. A Maine case²⁸ involved a city ordinance which purported to authorize the use of public funds for transporting pupils to Catholic

²⁵ Cotton States Mutual Insurance Co. v. Keefe (1959), 100 Ga. App. 715, 112 S.E. 2d. 435.

²⁶ State Farm Mutual Automobile Insurance Co. v. Jones (1958, rehearing denied,) 98 Ga. App. 46, 104 S.E. 2d. 725.

²⁷ Everson v. Board of Education (1945), 133 N.J.L. 350, 44 A. 2d. 333; (1947) 330 U.S. 1, 67 S.Ct. 504, 91 L.Ed. 711, 168 A.L.R. 1392; rehearing denied, 330 U.S. 885, 67 S.Ct. 962, 168 A.L.R. 1392.

²⁸ Squires v. Inhabitants of City of Augusta (1954), 153 A. 2d. 80.

parochial schools. The ordinance was defended as an exercise of police power—to protect children against road hazards, as they attended schools which met state compulsory attendance requirements. The court reviewed early documents and recent court rulings showing that the state maintained control of education—that the state was sovereign, and the city had only such powers as were granted in its charter. Moreover, reasoned the court, under a general grant of power such as the police power a city cannot adopt ordinances which infringe upon or are repugnant to the spirit or policy of the state. Before the ordinance in question could be upheld, added the court, there must be an enabling act by the legislature—authorizing cities to adopt such ordinances. The court noted that since there was no such statute in Maine, there could be no question regarding the constitutionality of a statute—as was involved in the *Everson Case*.

Question regarding the constitutionality of using public funds to transport children to parochial schools was raised in a New York case,²⁹ but major concern related to transportation to parochial schools outside the district. The court dismissed the constitutional issue by noting a constitutional amendment since the *Judd Decision*,³⁰ emphasized in the dispute, and by calling attention to the way in which the Supreme Court of the United States handled the constitutional question in the *Everson Case*. In regard to transportation beyond district limits, the court pointed to a statute which said: "sufficient transportation facilities . . . shall be provided for all children residing within the school district to and from the school they legally attend, who are in need of such transportation because of remoteness of the school to the child or for the promotion of the best interests of such children." Since the parochial school outside the district was one which a pupil might legally attend, the court upheld transportation to such school.

A 1956 Kentucky case³¹ presented a somewhat divided situation, in that one public agency was forbidden to use tax money for transporting pupils to parochial schools whereas another agency was permitted to do so. An earlier decision³² had held a 1940 act unconstitutional, which was intended to empower school boards to use tax revenue for the kind of transportation indicated. However a 1944 act, which permitted the fiscal courts to use tax money to supplement the school bus transportation of all children attending the primary grades who do not live within reasonable walking distance of school, had been held constitutional.³³ In the

²⁹ *Board of Education of Central School District v. Allen* (1959), 192 N.Y.S. 2d. 186, 17 Misc. 2d. 1080.

³⁰ *Judd v. Board of Education* (1938), 278 N. Y. 200, 15 N.E. 2d. 576, 118 A.L.R. 789.

³¹ *Rawlings v. Butler*, 290 S.W. 2d. 801.

³² *Sherrard v. Jefferson County Board of Education*, 294 Ky. 469, 171 S.W. 2d. 963.

³³ *Nichols v. Henry* (1945), 301 Ky. 434, 191 S.W. 2d. 930, 168 A.L.R. 1385, rehearing denied.

1956 case the court concluded that money raised by taxation for school purposes could not be used for transporting children to parochial schools, but that the fiscal court might use tax revenue for this purpose. Two further problems then arose: (1) determining which public agency supplied the funds involved; and (2) determining the way in which the cost of transportation to the parochial schools should be calculated, since pupils of both public and parochial schools rode the same buses. It was argued that the cost chargeable to parochial-school transportation should be the amount over and above what it would cost to operate the buses for public-school pupils alone. The court rejected this logic. It held that transportation costs should be determined on a per-pupil basis, as most other school costs were calculated. Since 19.1 per cent of the pupils were transported to the Catholic school, their share of the cost was 19.1 per cent of the cost of all pupil transportation.

In a Pennsylvania suit,³⁴ certain pupils attending non-public schools were being transported by the district to a public school site. Persons defending the practice contended that it did not violate a provision of the state constitution which stipulates: "No money raised for the support of the public schools of the Commonwealth shall be appropriated to or used for the support of any sectarian school." The court rejected the contention. Whether added expense was involved, in transporting the pupils who attended non-public schools, was irrelevant—reasoned the court. The Connell Case³⁵ was cited by the court as establishing the principle that the board had no authority to transport any pupils other than public school pupils.

³⁴ Robinson Tp. School District v. Houghton (1956), 387 Pa. 236, 128 A. 2d. 58.

³⁵ Connell v. Board of School Dirs. of Kennett Tp. (1947), 356 Pa. 585, 52 A. 2d. 180; appeal dismissed 332 U.S. 748, 68 S.Ct. 26, 92 L.Ed. 335.

Some Legal Aspects of Public Summer High Schools

M. VANCE SALES

MANY state constitutions and state statutes contain few or no provisions relating specifically to summer schools.¹ However, the operation of public summer schools is generally considered a legitimate function of the school system. Yet in many instances summer schools are not treated as an integral part of the total school program, but on a somewhat "extralegal" basis.²

Each state constitution, with the possible exception of a few southern states, provides for the state support of a uniform, tuition-free, public-school system. Three typical examples follow:

The Constitution of the *State of North Carolina* reads: "The General Assembly, at its first session under this Constitution, shall provide by taxation and otherwise for a general and uniform system of public schools, wherein tuition shall be free of charge to all children of the State between the ages of six and twenty-one years."³ The Constitution of the *State of New Mexico* reads: "A uniform system of free public schools sufficient for the education of, and open to, all children of school age in the state shall be established and maintained."⁴ The Constitution of the *State of Arkansas* reads: "Intelligence and virtue being the safeguard of liberty and bulwark of a free and good government, the State shall ever maintain a general, suitable and efficient system of free schools, whereby all persons in the State between the ages of six and twenty-one may receive gratuitous instruction."⁵

It is a well-established principle that state legislatures, restricted only by the state and Federal constitutions, have complete power with respect to education within the state. Edwards says: "The legislature may determine the types of schools to be established throughout the state, the means of their support, the organs of their administration, the content of their curricula, and the qualifications of their teachers."⁶

¹ F. W. Kirby, "Legal Aspects of Tuition," An Unpublished Ed.D. dissertation, Duke University, 1957, p. 221.

² E. C. Bolmeier, "Legality of Summer Tuition Fees," *The High School Journal*, Volume 33, November 1950, p. 186.

³ *North Carolina Constitution*, Article IX, Section 2.

⁴ *New Mexico Constitution*, Article XII, Section 1.

⁵ *Arkansas Constitution*, Article XIV, Section 1.

⁶ Newton Edwards. *The Courts and the Public Schools*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press. 1955. Pp. 27-28.

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Since summer high schools are operated and controlled by public school authorities who are under the jurisdiction of the school board, which in turn is controlled by the laws of the state, it appears reasonable and logical that they are a part of the total public school program and that they should be subject to all provisions of the constitution and statutes of the state which control the regular school terms. Nevertheless, in many states, certain summer school practices do not conform to the stipulations of the state constitutions and statutes for the operation of free public schools.

In a recent survey of the state departments of education throughout the United States approximately half indicated that their states do not have state regulations for the control of summer high schools and approximately half indicated that they do have state controls for the operation of summer high schools.⁷

In states where there are statutes relating to the operation of public summer high schools, or where the statutes relating to the operation of regular term schools have been interpreted to include the summer high schools, and where these statutes are followed, the legal status of these summer high schools appears to be secure. On the other hand, in states where few or no provisions have been made to govern the operation of summer high schools, the legality of the practices employed in many of these summer high schools is much more questionable.

Of course, every practice employed by the summer high schools will not be considered here. The major practices which are readily questionable include the charging of tuition, the payment of teachers' salaries from fees collected, admission practices of some public summer high schools, whether or not the school district's common law immunity exists when it operates a tuition public summer high school, and teachers' contracts. The preceding practices will be considered in the following paragraphs.

CHARGING TUITION

Where a state constitution provides for free public schools, and where there are not statutes stipulating tuition may be charged for summer high schools then the charging of a tuition is legally questionable. If a statute could be construed as allowing the charge of a tuition, then the constitutionality of that statute is questionable.⁸ Since the public summer high schools are in addition to the regular school program and compulsory attendance laws do not apply, there are few court cases concerned specifically with the charging of summer school tuition.⁹

An Arizona case in 1933, *Southwest Bank's Estate v. Tucson High School*, involved the charging of an attendance guarantee fee deposit. Although the deposit was charged to resident and non-resident pupils alike and was refunded to all pupils who were not absent more than

⁷ The writer surveyed each of the fifty state departments of education in the summer of 1959.

⁸ Bolmeier, *op. cit.*, p. 187.

⁹ Kirby, *op. cit.*, p. 221.

three days, the court declared the deposit illegal. In rendering its decision, the court ruled the deposit illegal and in conflict with the Constitution of the State of Arizona, which required public schools to be free. The court stated: "The only charge a high school may demand of a student is a reasonable monthly tuition charge of pupils living in the county but not in the high-school district, and this must be paid by the district in which the pupils reside."¹⁰

Although there is a paucity of court cases dealing with the charging of tuition for summer school attendance, a number of cases dealing generally with the charge of a tuition indicate that this practice is illegal.¹¹

PAYING TEACHERS FROM FEES COLLECTED

Closely related to the charging of a tuition *per se* is the charging of tuition for the purpose of supplementing teachers' salaries. The Alabama Supreme Court in 1916 ruled that a pupil could not be expelled for the failure to pay a fee which was to be used to supplement a teacher's salary. In this case, Judge Sayre stated that the pupil had been deprived of a "... valuable right or privilege which by law and without price is extended to all children of the state."¹² In the case of *Oliver v. Robinson*, another Alabama suit, the court ruled that a pupil could not be forced to pay a monthly fee required of all pupils.¹³ Additional court cases bear out the same principle that the charging of a tuition to attend a public school is illegal no matter what use is being made of the tuition.¹⁴

In the summer of 1959, thirty-seven of the fifty states of the United States reported that a tuition was charged in the summer high schools of their states.¹⁵

ADMISSION PRACTICES

It appears that the legality of certain admission practices found in a number of public summer high schools is also questionable. It is certainly true that a school board may restrict the admission of pupils for a number of reasons. Numerous court cases are on record which uphold the power of the school board in this area. In the case of *Spear v. Cummings*, the Massachusetts Supreme Court stated: "The law provides that every town shall choose a school committee, who shall have the general charge and superintendence of all the public schools in such town. . . . The general charge and superintendence, in the absence of express legal provisions, includes the power of determining what pupils shall be received and what pupils rejected. The committee may, for good reason,

¹⁰ *Southwest Bank's Estate v. Tucson High School*, 41 Arizona 507, 19 E (2d) 1063, (1933).

¹¹ *Special School District No. 65 v. Bangs*, 221 S.W. 1060, (1920); *Irvin v. Gregory* 13 S.E. 120, (1891); *State v. Wilson*, 297 S.W. 419, (1927).

¹² *Williams v. Smith*, 67 So. 323, (1916).

¹³ *Roberson v. Oliver*, 66 So. 645, (1920).

¹⁴ *Williams v. Smith*, 68 So. 323, (1916); *Roberson v. Oliver*, 66 So. 645, (1920); *Special School District No. 65 v. Bangs*, 221 S.W. 1060, (1920); *Irvin v. Gregory*, 13 S.E. 120, (1891); *State v. Wilson*, 297 S.W. 419, (1927).

¹⁵ Taken from the survey of the fifty state departments of education which was conducted by the writer.

determine that some shall not be received, as, for instance, if infected with any contagious disease, or if the pupil or parent shall refuse to comply with regulations necessary to the discipline and good management of the school."¹⁶

Other court cases attest to the implied powers of the school board to limit admission to the public schools. Courts have held that the school board has the power to refuse admittance to those who are physically unclean,¹⁷ to those who have been guilty of immoral conduct,¹⁸ and to those who refuse to take a physical examination.¹⁹ The question in point here is whether or not the limiting of the admission to public summer high schools may legally be restricted to those who have failed, or only to those who have certain grade averages, or only to those who have not failed during the regular term. Many public summer high schools throughout the United States have the above restrictions or similar restrictions which limit admission.

COMMON LAW IMMUNITY

The legal question: Does the school district keep its common law immunity for the negligent acts of its employees, or will the school district be held liable for the negligent acts of its employees when operating a tuition public summer high school? The courts are not agreed in drawing a distinction between governmental and proprietary functions. If the courts should rule the tuition summer high school to be a purely governmental function, then the common law immunity concept would prevail. However, should the courts consider the tuition public summer high school a proprietary function, the immunity of the school district for the negligent acts of its employees would be inoperative. The major test then is whether or not the particular activity concerned is proprietary or governmental in nature.

In this instance a recent Pennsylvania case is pertinent. The 1958 case of *Morris v. School District of Mount Lebanon*²⁰ included these aspects: The school district was conducting a summer recreational program. An integral part of the program included activities similar to a normal day camp, consisting of arts and crafts, dancing and swimming, which were not a part of the regular school curriculum. In addition, the school district was not required by statute to engage in this function, and, consequently, charged an admission fee to participate in the program. Justice Cohen considered this activity of the school district to be proprietary in nature. He defined a proprietary function, and concurrently admitted the difficulty to do so, stating, "... that if a given activity is one which a local government is not statutorily required to perform, or if it may also be used as a means of obtaining revenue the function is proprietary."²¹ The

¹⁶ *Spear v. Cummings*, 34 Am. Dec. 53, (1839).

¹⁷ *Sherman v. Charleston*, 8 Cush 160, (1851).

¹⁸ *Spear v. Cummings*, 34 Am. Dec. 53, (1839).

¹⁹ *Streich v. Bd. of Education*, 163 Pac. 145, (1917).

²⁰ *Morris v. School District of Mount Lebanon Tp.*, 144 A (2d) 737, (1958).

²¹ *Ibid.*

court went on to rule the recreational summer program to be a "proprietary function" and stated the school district to be "... liable for the death of a child, who was enrolled in the program, as a result of drowning while playing in the water in the swimming pool, if the death was the result of negligence of the employees of the school district."²² In making this decision the court also noted: "Municipal corporations and quasi-municipal corporations such as school districts are not immune from tort liability in torts for the negligent acts of their servants committed in the course of proprietary functions of the municipal and quasi-municipal corporations."²³

In making its decision the court cited other cases relative to the case in point. *Pinek v. County of Allegheny*²⁴ involved a municipal corporation which had rented some of its property. The court ruled this constituted a proprietary function and the municipal corporation was therefore liable for the negligent acts of its employees. The case of *Michael v. Lancaster School District*²⁵ involved the Lancaster School District in Pennsylvania which had allowed a recreational association to use its playground. In a nuisance case, the school district, although not in charge or control of the recreational program, was held liable for medical damages involving an injured participant of the recreational program as the activities were ruled to be proprietary in nature.

TEACHERS' CONTRACTS

The statutes of many states require that the employment of teachers be secured by a written contract. The *School Code of Nevada*, for an example, reads: "... the conditions shall be embodied in a written contract to be signed by the president and the clerk of the board. . . ."²⁶ Edwards cites numerous court decisions to substantiate the following statement: "Where the statutes specifically require the contracts with teachers shall be in written form, oral contracts are invalid."²⁷ In many instances throughout the United States, teachers in summer high schools are employed by school boards through oral agreements. The statutes of many of these states require teachers to be employed by a written contract.

SUMMARY

In conclusion, summer-school administrators should consider carefully the legality of the practices employed in their summer high schools. Although there are few court cases dealing specifically with summer high schools, the liability for these practices is always present. It would be wise for the summer school administrator to be familiar with his states' constitution, statutes, and the state department's regulations concerning the operation of the public summer high school.

²² *Ibid.*

²³ *Ibid.*

²⁴ *Pinek v. County of Allegheny, et. al.*, 142 A (2d), 296, (1958).

²⁵ *Michael v. Lancaster School District*, 137 A (2d), 456, (1958).

²⁶ *School Code of Nevada*, Chapter 391 Section 120, 1957, p. 134.

²⁷ Edwards, *op. cit.*, p. 451.

Cultivate the Custodian

MELVIN P. HELLER

MANY of our leading experts in school administration and supervision are engaged in debating the strengths and weaknesses of line-and-staff organization, of the democratic approach in school management, of the comprehensive high school, of the teaching of foreign languages in the elementary schools, etc. Certainly, these are important considerations, but their significance is lost when compared with the most crucial problem in school administration: keeping the custodian happy.

For reasons which defy adequate enumeration, these essential workers are often disgruntled, grouchy, uncooperative, and sometimes belligerent. Several reasons, however, for the low morale of the custodians may be cited. *First* of all, since they are not honor bound by the professional ethics and the altruistic dedication of the teaching staff, these non-certificated members of the sanitation brigade are seldom willing to work overtime without adequate financial compensation. *Secondly*, they are seldom sufficiently familiar with professional literature to recognize the evils of the principal's authority and they are seldom sufficiently sophisticated to realize that they do not recognize these evils; hence, they usually ignore the democratically oriented suggestions of the professional staff and they often become autocrats in their own right. *Thirdly*, because they have not had three to six college semester hours of psychology, they seldom realize that intrinsic motivation is more important than a high salary.

Regardless of the contributing factors which result in the dour disposition of so many of these gentlemen, no teacher can afford to alienate the custodian. When a window shade requires repair or replacement, the custodian has been known to ignore the task if the teacher in whose room the problem exists is not a friend, especially at Christmas. The dust in the chalk troughs may aggravate many allergies if the custodian allows it to accumulate to sand dune proportions. Many classroom projects would be impossible to complete if the custodian did not furnish the plywood, the carpentry skill, and the heft. Many classrooms would be even more frigid if the custodian did not remember to adjust the thermostats or to close the windows. Many teachers would die of thirst or of frazzled nerves if the custodian did not prepare the coffee prior to the recess or the free period. Many bowling teams would be without an anchor man if the custodian preferred to compete with less educated but more skilled bowling companions.

If the custodian is important for efficient teacher performance and for desirable teacher morale, he is indispensable as a partner of the adminis-

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trator. In fact, many administrators would be unable to evaluate their teachers if the custodian preferred to be silent. It is a foolish administrator, indeed, who does not take advantage of the custodian's inclination to spread the news of the school. Except for a few back-fence experts and some women school board members, the custodian seldom has a community peer in the realm of gossip. Partly because of fear, partly because of respect, partly because of necessity, administrators have been known to court the favor of these disseminators of misinformation through the media of compliments, cigarettes, desk and office space, and goodies of many sorts. When rapport has been established, the custodian-administrator team can perform with efficiency and secrecy, and it can present a formidable obstacle to teacher demands, however democratically conceived. If the team does not have mutual respect for its two members, it is possible for the senior member, the custodian, to run the school until the administrator falls back into line. The implications are clear, but the prospect is too horrible to contemplate. It is better to stress cooperation and togetherness for these two executives.

Under the concept of creative administration, the latent talents of the staff are sought and utilized. With the cooperation of the talented custodian, the administrator needs little else. In harmony with this point, the following are offered as suggested functions or roles of the custodian above and beyond the call of janitorial duty:

1. *Spy*—Granting the premise that it is undemocratic for the supervisor to engage in classroom visitations, who can suspect the custodian of spying when he enters the classroom for the overt purpose of cleaning it? Much vital information can be given to the principal relative to each teacher's ability to keep house, to abuse window ledge space, and to erase the board.

2. *Evaluator of the curriculum*—Some of the custodians have an eighth-grade education and they invariably remember the good old days when teachers knew the right way to teach. After all, the eminence of the custodian is proof enough that his school has an illustrious group of alumni.

3. *Disciplinarian*—Here is an ideal outlet for the nasty disposition of some custodians. Not many children would dare to defy a man who not only looks ready to fight, but who also is not aware of the social-psychological finding that there are no problem children, only problem parents.

4. *Director of public relations*—If the principal or the superintendent are too busy to participate actively in this type of work, the custodian can relieve them of this task. Because the custodian has no vested interest in the educational program of the school and because he cannot be labelled as an ivory towered intellectual, his approach to school-community relations probably will be well accepted. Moreover, since he usually knows all the bad and some of the good about everyone in the school

building, his knowledge may be very valuable to pressure groups of all types.

In sum, the teachers and the administrators should be reminded that they can be replaced, but custodians are not expendable. If a good school situation is desired, never anger the custodian; cultivate him. It is the professional educator who planted the seed which produced this crop.

Guiding Policies for Interscholastic Athletic Program

IN AN attempt to insure united action by all interested national groups which are concerned with high-school athletics, a Joint Committee representing the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, the American Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation, and the National Federation of State High School Athletic Associations received approval of this statement of recommended standards in 1950. After ten years the Joint Committee in 1960 has just re-affirmed these recommendations and urges their full observance.

1. Athletics are to be an integral part of the secondary-school program and should receive financial support from tax funds to supplement other available funds. As a part of the curriculum, high-school sports are to be conducted by secondary-school authorities and all instruction provided by competent, qualified, and accredited teachers so that desirable definite educational aims may be achieved.

2. Athletics are for the benefit of all youth. The aim is maximum participation—a sport for every boy and every girl in a sport—in a well-balanced intramural and interscholastic program with emphasis on safe and healthful standards of competition.

3. Athletics are to be conducted under rules which provide for equitable competition, sportsmanship, fair play, health, and safety. High-school sports are for amateurs who are *bona fide* undergraduate high-school students. Pre-season, post-schedule, post-season, all-star games, or similar types of promotions are not consistent with good school policy. It is necessary to develop a full understanding of the need for observance of local, league, sectional, state, and national standards in athletics.

The Guiding Policies are expressed in complete detail by a Joint Committee of the American Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation and the National Federation of State High-School Athletic Associations as "Cardinal Athletic Principles."

RECOMMENDATIONS OF THE JOINT COMMITTEE ON STANDARDS IN ATHLETICS

For the purpose of promoting and stimulating safe and healthful participation among a high percentage of secondary-school boys in a wide variety of wholesome athletic activities and after careful study of the problems which have been created by certain types of interscholastic contests (including meets, tournaments, national championships, contests which require distant travel, contests which are sponsored by individuals or organizations other than a high school or group of high schools, and contests between teams of high-school all-stars), the Joint Committee makes the following recommendations. The Joint Committee urges that all of the organizations represented adopt these *Major Interpretations* and place them in the form of policies, standards, or regulations in accordance with the established practice of each organization.

1. The program of athletics should be developed with due regard for health and safety standards as set forth in *Suggested School Health Policies* of the American Medical Association.

2. Good citizenship must result from all coaching and from all inter-school competition. The education of the youth of the nation fails unless it creates the proper ideals and attitudes both in the game and off the field.

3. The ten "Cardinal Athletic Principles" are accepted as expressing the policies of our organizations, and it is urged that these be displayed in the literature of our organizations.

4. All schools shall use reasonable care in avoiding any participation in a contact sport between participants of normal high-school age and participants who are appreciably above or below normal high-school age.

5. All schools shall fully observe and abide by the spirit and letter of established eligibility requirements which have been democratically developed by each of the state athletic associations.

6. Each state athletic association should attempt to secure the cooperation which would provide a plan of continuous eligibility from high school to college.

7. For competition in which only one state is involved, no school shall participate in a meet or tournament involving more than two schools unless such contest has been approved by its state high-school association or its delegated constituent or allied divisions.

8. The use of school facilities or members of the school staff shall not be permitted in connection with any post-season or all-star contest unless such contest has been sanctioned by the state athletic association.

9. A school shall not permit any employee or official to encourage or collaborate in any negotiations which may lead a high-school athlete to lose his eligibility through the signing of a professional contract.

10. The solicitation of athletes through try-outs and competitive bidding by higher institutions is unethical and unprofessional. It destroys

the amateur nature of athletics, tends to commercialize the individual and the program, promotes the use of athletic skill for gain, and takes an unfair and unjust advantage of competitors.

11. In all interstate athletic contests, each athlete shall compete under eligibility rules which are at least as restrictive as those adopted by the state high-school athletic association of his state, except in the case of non-member schools which are not eligible for membership in their state associations.

12. No school shall compete in any of the following contests unless such contest has been sanctioned by each of the interested state high-school athletic associations through the National Federation: (a) any interstate tournament or meet in which three or more schools participate; (b) any interstate two-school contest which involves a round trip exceeding 600 miles; (c) any interstate two-school contest (regardless of the distance to be traveled) which is sponsored by an individual or an organization other than a member high school.

13. No basketball tournament which is purported to be for interstate high-school championship shall be sanctioned, and no basketball tournament involving schools of more than one state shall be sanctioned unless the tournament is purely community in character.

14. No contest which is purported to be for a national high-school championship in any sport shall be sanctioned.

The above recommendations were adopted as representing the policy of the three organizations at the National Federation annual meeting in December 1949; The National Association annual meeting in February 1950; and the American Association annual meeting in April 1950.

Change Without Controversy

KENNETH L. FISH

NO CONSCIENTIOUS educator can be content merely with maintaining the *status quo* in his school. Yet, if changes are to have good results rather than harmful ones, the educational leader must work carefully. Constructive change, which will not backfire in the form of poor morale, depends upon the answer to this question: Can the school administrator build a foundation of understanding and good faith among his teachers? This is basic. Once it is achieved, intelligent leadership can

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accomplish worth-while goals; without it, limitless ingenuity will be barren and unproductive.

Understanding and good faith come from honesty and from genuine respect for people. But the school administrator who embodies these character traits can still run amuck in working toward curriculum change if he is not careful and deliberate in handling the problem of communication.

Just as the school administrator should be sincere himself, he should try to keep his colleagues honest in their statements. Important to this is the prevention of "grandstanding."

Look at this faculty meeting scene: The topic of discussion is, say, reporting to parents. After a few minutes of discussion, the principal can recognize two or three different power-groups among the teachers as clearly as though they were wearing team colors! Among the statements of teachers about the mechanics of reporting and possible advantages of various systems, signs of grandstanding appear. One teacher makes a statement which she only half believes, and for which she cares nothing, in order to win the approval of one faculty clique; another staff member takes a "devil's advocate" position deliberately to "get a rise" out of someone else. This phenomenon is not restricted to teachers. People in any category may act this way, showing their emotional needs of acceptance and belonging.

However, grandstanding is damaging. It leads people to speak for effect rather than from their own good judgment and integrity. It brings "red herrings" into discussions. It detracts from the best solutions of problems.

One way of reducing grandstanding is to plan meetings so that only those having a legitimate concern about an issue participate in discussing it. In a staff meeting, if a controversial question arises concerning only ninth-grade home-room teachers, a detailed examination of the question might well be postponed for a special meeting of just this group of teachers. Another helpful technique is to do a good deal of ground-work in smaller groups of staff members before presenting questions for discussion in open faculty meetings. A discussion among six or eight people is likely to have a better ratio of rational to emotional elements than a discussion among fifty people. In small-group discussion an idea is refined and improved; furthermore, the people working on it become identified with it and help to steer it through the rougher waters of subsequent general meetings.

A school administrator should frequently invite teachers to discuss school problems with him individually. In this situation, a teacher can present his ideas without concern for the reactions of his colleagues. When two people are talking together, there is a better chance for them to perceive and appreciate each other *as persons*, transcending their stereotypes of each other.

A stock piece of advice about planning faculty meetings is to save time by disseminating routine information by memoranda, keeping agenda for meetings clear of such things. The administrator who is sensitive to human relations will carefully restrict this practice to only those matters which are genuinely routine. The written word is deceptive and limited. It cannot be modified by inflection, gesture, or facial expression; thus it is liable to varied interpretations and to misunderstanding. For this reason, the educational leader who is unduly reliant upon bulletins and memoranda invites trouble. Whenever there is a possibility of basic misunderstanding or of controversy, it is worth while to take the time to state a policy or procedure before the faculty. In this way one can sense reactions, acknowledge differences of viewpoint, and reconcile them. Doing this can prevent much dissatisfaction and destructive comment.

People will not be hurried in their thinking. When they are, they sometimes reconsider their conclusions. For this reason, hastily reached group decisions are often difficult to live with. Recognizing this, the wise leader will let his staff consider courses of action for a time while they are still in the tentative stage. He may take a straw vote, state what action seems to be indicated, and then table the matter until the next meeting. During the intervening time the topic may "simmer" in faculty rooms. If the ultimate decision remains the same, there is greater assurance that it will "wear well"; if reasons for modifying it appear, the final solution usually will be a wiser one.

The most real and most important part of education is the magical process which occurs between teacher and student. The only successful curriculum work is that which improves this process and the surrounding events. No course titles, no mimeographed resource units have any positive significance unless there is an actual improvement in what happens in the classroom. Improvements there occur only when teachers are happy and secure in their work. To accomplish this, the wise educational leader will strive for change, but for change without controversy.

Experimentation in the New York City High Schools

SAMUEL POLATNICK
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EXTENDING as it does over a vast city of tremendous complexity, New York City's school system deals in its more than 900 schools with a bewildering variety of instructional problems. At the same time, as the system strives for uniform quality of attainment, it invites and encourages city-wide and individual school experimentation in response to educational need.

The 85 public high schools, which served approximately 225,000 boys and girls during the 1959-1960 school year, are particularly sensitive to a host of problems: preparing young men and women for college, business, or vocational careers; meeting current pressures for training in science; identifying and providing for individual differences; overcoming language and cultural handicaps; providing remedial or special programs for limited or underachieving students; stimulating the able; *etc.*

Of the 56 academic and 29 vocational high schools, 46 academic and 12 vocational schools reported experimentation during the school year 1959-1960 beyond the varied and special offerings and services generally available. Of these more than 200 experiments, some were conducted under the supervision of the Bureau of Educational Research; many more were carried on formally and informally by individual schools.

Experimentation ranged over such areas as remedial and enrichment efforts in the curriculum, organization and schedule, guidance, methods and materials, teacher training, and testing. Since such research is designed not only to help present youngsters, but to pave the way for future students, schoolmen throughout the country may want to try out some of the innovations their New York City colleagues are introducing.

THE PROBLEM OF THE UNDERACHIEVER

New York City's high schools have been quick to respond to the insight afforded by the concept of the "underachiever." This has been the recognition that not only must the schools work with the slow learner, but that there also is a need for bringing every pupil up to potential.

Thus, in the Higher Horizons Project, an attempt was made to determine whether several hundred predominantly Negro and Puerto Rican pupils with culturally deprived backgrounds could raise their academic

This report was prepared under the direction of Assistant Superintendents Maurice D. Hopkins and Francis Griffith by Samuel Polatnick, Chairman of Social Studies, assigned to the High-School Division, Board of Education, 110 Livingston Street, Brooklyn 1, New York.

achievement through a specialized educational program. These youngsters were placed in small classes; provided with intensive remedial instruction and individual guidance; and taken to operas, ballets, plays, concerts, museums, and other cultural offerings. Thus far, there is evidence of reduced drop-out rates, fewer failures in school subjects, more regular attendance, a decreased incidence of behavior problems, more purposeful study habits, and even a significant increase in some intelligence test scores.

To overcome deficiencies in skill achievement, one school provided a double period of instruction in the mechanics of writing for seniors with earlier failures in English. Another school earmarked time in related classes in terms 6, 7, and 8 to review fundamentals in English, social studies, and accounting. To meet reading problems, some schools established reading laboratories for normal or high IQ students with a reading retardation of more than two years. In addition to the provision by many schools of special classes in remedial reading for students of low intelligence, one school reported an attempt to teach non-readers through an extensive phonics approach. In social studies some students were taken from study halls for as much as one third of a semester for additional help. Special remedial classes in mathematics and language, regular weekly reviews, and student tutoring by gifted pupils were employed to bring deficient students up to par. One school trained teachers of social studies and science in techniques of reading instruction suitable for developing the pupils' reading skills in those subject areas.

The problem of the potential drop-out was met, in one instance, by arranging for a modified program which included, in addition to basic instruction in English, social studies, *etc.*, instruction in first-aid, job-getting, and driver education, and, in another school, by authorizing a shortened school day followed by outside employment under school supervision.

In a particularly interesting joint effort, ten Brooklyn high schools sent a total of 120 college-bound juniors and seniors to an intensive three-and-a-half-week, experimental, summer, non-credit, reading and composition workshop. Groups of thirty boys and girls were given instruction every day in eighty-minute periods, and also shared in additional individual conference time. To broaden and deepen reading abilities, youngsters used library facilities, paper-back purchases, reading lists, the tachistoscope, the science research laboratory, and vocabulary exercises. Students wrote a minimum of one composition a week which was meticulously evaluated and made the basis for individual conference.

Nowadays, not only must the schools try to develop all pupils to their full potential, but they also must provide for the development of promising students to meet the newer and expanding demands of our dynamic society. Thus, the New York City high schools have been very quick to move to an extension of already comprehensive offerings in science and mathematics.

ENRICHMENT

Students at a Manhattan high school conducted experiments with an 0.8 Mev cyclotron for the acceleration of protons and neutrons. Several schools created combinations of a science, such as physics, chemistry, or biology, with an industrial arts course to promote projects in individual and group research. A Brooklyn high school offered a one-semester course in Current Problems in Biology for superior students with three years of science. Schools offered basic electronics, virology, and cartography.

A typical enriched mathematics program required superior sophomores and juniors to cover all tenth- and eleventh-grade mathematics and some work in solid geometry so that they might be free to study analytic geometry and calculus in their senior year. A group of gifted sophomores in a Bronx high school was taught an integrated course in plane, solid, and analytic geometry. In another school, superior students were trained to use IBM equipment in programming mathematical problems; they were also taught elements of Boolean algebra and other advanced concepts. One high school substituted a course in solid geometry and calculus for the traditional solid geometry course. Another Brooklyn school accelerated instruction so that able boys and girls could complete three semesters of trigonometry, solid geometry, and advanced algebra in one year. Incidentally, the course in solid geometry was modified to introduce college-level work in analytic and non-Euclidean geometry. A high school in Queens enriched the tenth-year mathematics course by adding units in rocketry, vectors, slide rule, binary number systems, and the history of numbers.

Nor was enrichment neglected in other areas of the curriculum. Advanced Placement courses were provided in English, foreign languages, and history, as well as in the sciences and mathematics. Two schools organized Great Books courses for selected students. Training was made available for careers in civil service, and a vocational high school in Manhattan conducted a merchandising workshop in which exercises in design, color, and textural relationships were applied to the installation of window displays. New and expanded offerings were developed in the dance, art, and foreign languages.

Administrators sought to implement educational objectives by grouping, scheduling, and other organizational procedures. This concern for special needs was highlighted by such instances as providing separate required music classes for "singers" and "listeners," and separate physical training classes for "muscularly deprived," normal, and superior students. Core classes were conducted to meet special problems of the language handicapped, the slow, and bright pupils.

GUIDANCE

Intensive efforts were made in the guidance programs of various schools to identify, predict, correct, and assist students to fulfill their potential.

Using data secured from seniors who had improved achievement from similar beginnings, a high school on Staten Island identified sophomore underachievers and counseled them. Several schools provided intensive individual and group counseling using home rooms, assembly periods, and special classes for such purposes. One school attempted to promote favorable attitudes toward careers in science through a supplementary reading program of selected fiction. A principal sought to differentiate among the interests, study habits, critical thinking ability, and spatial relations ability of average, under, and overachievers in tenth-year mathematics. Another administrator examined the possibility of early identification of "problem potential" students to determine the effects of additional extensive guidance procedures upon the social adjustment of such students in high school. A school in Brooklyn checked the accuracy of early classification of slow students by following actual achievement throughout high school.

METHODS AND MATERIALS

In methods and materials, the variety of efforts is considerable. A Queens high school has developed a Braille duplicating device by which several Brailers can be activated electrically from one keyboard so that multiple copies of instructional materials can be prepared for blind students. In almost every subject, there is constant attention given to developing materials within the system and evaluating materials developed by out-of-school agencies. Thus, a number of schools participated in the evaluation of foreign policy materials prepared by the North Central Association Foreign Policy Project. A Brooklyn high school evaluated the possibility of teaching chemistry to students and providing in-service training for instructors through the use of the *Modern Chemistry Film Series* of 160 films prepared for Encyclopedia Britannica Films by Professor John Baxter. A language laboratory was worked with in another high school.

A brief report cannot do justice to the scope and significance of the many experimental activities conducted this past year. Enough has been suggested to indicate that, large as the educational system of New York City is, it is nonetheless sensitive to the needs of every individual pupil and to the requirements of our times. Accordingly, the high schools of the city constantly evaluate what they do, and are always on the alert for any new approach which may refine even further an already excellent program.

New and Beginning Teachers in Pennsylvania

ROY H. DUGAN

THIS is a Study of the need for information, on the part of new and beginning teachers in the public elementary and secondary schools of Pennsylvania, considered essential by them in their orientation and adjustment to the local school system, and the sources from which they received this information. The purposes of the study was (1) to determine what problems and needs confront new and beginning teachers; (2) to determine what practices are used to meet these problems and needs; (3) to determine the effectiveness of the practices used; and (4) to make recommendations concerning the improvement in practices for the orientation and adjustment of new and beginning teachers.

The method of conducting this study involved the following steps:

1. Reviewing previous research as well as related literature pertinent to the study.

2. Developing a representative sample of teachers, to whom a questionnaire would be submitted.

- a. Statistics were obtained from the Department of Public Instruction, Harrisburg, Pennsylvania, concerning the total number of teachers and the number of new and beginning teachers in each of the four classes of school districts during the school year 1951-52, the latest available.

- b. A representative sample was then selected from this list that would include a minimum of 200 cases. The representative sample was arrived at by taking the number of new and beginning teachers for each class of school district and dividing that number by the total number of new and beginning teachers for all four classes of school districts. This percentage was multiplied by 200, the minimum number of new and beginning teachers to be contacted, in order to determine the number of teachers to contact in each of the four classes of school districts.

3. Developing a comprehensive questionnaire in order to secure the essential data need for the study.

The initial step in preparing the questionnaire was to examine several books, theses, pamphlets, and magazine articles about new and beginning teachers and their problems. The questionnaire was furthered by a series of consultations and interviews with professors of education. Conferences were held with experienced teachers, new teachers, and beginning teachers to develop the items listed in the questionnaire.

The completed questionnaire was checked for clarity by two classes of graduate students in Teachers College, Temple University. They were asked to

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examine the questionnaire and give suggestions concerning the clarity and structure of the questions.

The questionnaire was organized in the check-list form to facilitate answering, maximum readability, and coverage of the problem. In order to facilitate handling and assure better response, the questionnaire was printed.

4. A selected group of Pennsylvania public elementary and secondary teachers, who were new or beginning in 1954-55, were supplied with the questionnaire. Distribution was accomplished by sending copies of the questionnaire to selected officials in first-, second-, third- and fourth-class school districts. These officials were asked to distribute the questionnaires to a given number of elementary- and secondary-school teachers in their districts. The districts selected were chosen with due regard to their geographic location, class of school district, type of school, and size of school by pupil enrollment.

5. A total of 923 questionnaires was distributed in the 67 counties of Pennsylvania. A total of 246 completed questionnaires was returned. This return represented 26.6 per cent of the total number distributed. The returns received were more than adequate to meet the requirements determined for each of the four classes of school districts. Returns were received from new and beginning teachers in 47 of the 67 counties in Pennsylvania.

6. Follow-up letters were mailed to teachers who did not respond to the initial request.

7. Personal interviews were held with five teachers to determine how the questionnaire accurately diagnosed the problems faced by new and beginning teachers. The results of this brief sample indicated that the questionnaire was comprehensive enough to cover all possible subject areas.

8. A tabulation and analysis of the information on returned questionnaires was made, and the findings were interpreted.

9. Conclusions were drawn from the data and recommendations made regarding the need for information on the part of new and beginning teachers, the sources from which they received this information, and the effectiveness of these sources.

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS

1. Of the 246 new and beginning teachers participating in this study, 185, or 75.2 per cent, were employed in schools located in third or fourth class school districts. The remainder of the sample were employed in schools located in first or second class school districts.

2. One hundred teachers, or 40.7 per cent of the total sample, were employed in six-year elementary schools. Fifty-three teachers, or 21.5 per cent, were teaching in six-year high schools. Of the remaining group, 31, or 12.6 per cent, were in junior high schools; 27, or 11.0 per cent, were teaching in three-year high schools; 21, or 8.5 per cent, were employed

in four-year high schools; and 14, or 5.7 per cent, were in eight-year elementary schools.

3. Sixty-seven, or 27.2 per cent of the teachers, were employed in schools with enrollments of 100 to 399 pupils. Schools enrolling from 400 to 699 were represented by 81 teachers, or 32.9 per cent of the total sample. Thirty-eight, or 15.4 per cent, were from schools with enrollments of 700 to 999. Thirty, or 12.2 per cent, were employed in schools with enrollments of 1,000 to 1,299. Schools with enrollments of 1,300 to 1,599 were represented by nine teachers, or 3.7 per cent. Twenty-one, or 8.5 per cent, were teaching in schools with enrollments of 1,600 pupils or more.

4. Of the new teachers with previous classroom experience, 25, or 28.2 per cent, changed their positions after their first year and 15, or 17.0 per cent, after their second year of teaching.

5. Of the 246 new and beginning teachers returning questionnaires, 198, or 80.5 per cent, were between the ages of 20 to 30 years.

6. Seventy per cent of the sample was composed of women teachers.

7. One hundred and fifty-eight of the 246 teachers, or 64.2 per cent of the sample, were beginning teachers without previous teaching experience.

8. One hundred and thirty-seven of the 246 new and beginning teachers, or 55.7 per cent, were single.

9. Two hundred and two teachers, or 82.1 per cent of the total sample, held the college provisional certificate. Permanent teaching certificates were held by 37, or 15.0 per cent. Five teachers, or 2.1 per cent, held an emergency certificate; while one teacher, or 0.04 per cent, held the normal school certificate. One teacher was an exchange teacher from overseas, or 0.04 per cent of the sample.

10. The pre-employment problems of new and beginning teachers and the sources of information used in meeting these problems were:

a. The personal problem reported by the highest number of teachers concerned the schedule of vacations and fixed activities. One hundred and twenty-four teachers, or 50.4 per cent of the total reporting, wanted information on this subject. The sources of information were the printed handbook and a letter from the chief administrative official.

b. The personal problem reported by the second highest number of teachers concerned local teachers' organizations. One hundred and nine teachers, or 44.3 per cent of the total reporting, wanted information on this subject. The sources of information on local teachers' organizations were materials issued by these organizations.

c. The financial problem reported by the highest number of teachers concerned the salary schedule. Of the 246 teachers participating in this study, 196, or 79.7 per cent of the total, wanted information on this subject. The source most helpful in providing information on the salary schedule was an interview with the chief administrative official.

d. The financial problem reported by the second highest number of teachers concerned sick leave and other absence requirements. One hundred

and forty-four teachers, or 58.5 per cent of the total reporting, wanted information on this subject. The source of information was the printed handbook.

e. The school problem reported by the highest number of teachers concerned the teaching assignment. Two hundred and twelve teachers, or 86.2 per cent, wanted information on this subject. The sources of information were the interview with the chief administrative official and principal.

f. The school problem reported by the second highest number of teachers concerned the school philosophy. One hundred and seventy-five teachers, or 71.1 per cent of the total reporting, wanted information on this subject. The sources of information were the interview with the chief administrative official, the printed handbook, and the interview with the principal.

g. The school problem reported by the third highest number of teachers concerned the school-day routine. One hundred and thirty-one teachers, or 53.2 per cent of the total reporting, wanted information on this subject. The sources of information were the interview with the principal, printed handbook, and the chief administrative official.

h. The community problem reported by the highest number of new and beginning teachers was that of learning about the community itself. Of the total sample, 74, or 30.1 per cent, wanted information on this subject. The sources of information were the interview with the chief administrative official and principal.

11. Directly after employment, the problems of new and beginning teachers and the sources of information used in meeting these problems were:

a. The personal problem reported by the highest number of teachers concerned the schedule of vacations and fixed activities. Ninety-three teachers, or 37.8 per cent of the total reporting, wanted information on this subject. The sources of information were the pre-opening faculty meeting and the printed handbook.

b. The financial problem reported by the highest number of teachers concerned sick leave and other absence requirements. Of the total sample, 79, or 32.1 per cent, were interested in this subject. The source most helpful in providing information on sick leave was the printed handbook.

c. The school problem reported by the highest number of teachers concerned classroom supplies and equipment. One hundred and forty-five teachers, or 48.9 per cent of the total reporting, wanted information on this subject. The sources of information were the pre-opening faculty meeting and an interview with the principal.

d. The school problem reported by the second highest number of teachers concerned report cards and permanent record cards. One hundred and thirty-eight teachers, or 56.1 per cent of the total, wanted information on this subject. The sources of information were the pre-opening faculty meeting and an interview with the principal.

e. The community problem reported by the highest number of teachers concerned community background. Of the total sample, 43, or 17.5 per cent, wanted information on this subject. The source most helpful in providing information on community background was an interview with the principal.

12. During the first two months of school, the problems of new and beginning teachers and the sources of information used in meeting these problems were:

a. The school problem reported by the highest number of teachers concerned report cards and permanent record cards. One hundred and seventy-three teachers, or 70.3 per cent of the total reporting, wanted information on this subject. The sources of information were the principal or supervisor, faculty meeting, and fellow teachers.

b. The school problem reported by the second highest number of teachers concerned classroom supplies and equipment. Of the total sample, 161, or 65.4 per cent, wanted information on this subject. The sources of information were fellow teachers, principal or supervisor, and the faculty meeting.

c. The school problem reported by the third highest number of teachers concerned attendance procedures. One hundred and forty-five teachers, or 58.9 per cent of the total reporting, wanted information on this subject. The sources of information were the principal or supervisor, fellow teachers, and the faculty meeting.

d. The school problem reported by the fourth highest number of teachers concerned the marking system. Of the total sample, 144, or 58.5 per cent, wanted information on this subject. The sources of information were the principal or supervisor, fellow teachers, and the faculty meeting.

e. The school problem reported by the fifth highest number of teachers concerned the school philosophy. One hundred and thirty-six teachers, or 55.2 per cent of the total reporting, wanted information on this subject. The sources of information were fellow teachers, the faculty meeting, and the principal or supervisor.

f. The school problem reported by the sixth highest number of teachers concerned the "unwritten laws" of the school. Of the total sample, 126, or 51.2 per cent, wanted information on this subject. The source of information on the "unwritten laws" of the school was fellow teachers.

g. The financial problem reported by the highest number of teachers concerned Blue Cross and group insurance. One hundred teachers, or 40.6 per cent of the total reporting, wanted information on this subject. The sources of information were the principal or supervisor, a teachers' association, and the faculty meeting.

13. During the year, the problems of new and beginning teachers and the sources of information used in meeting these problems were:

a. The school problem reported by the highest number of teachers concerned the close of school procedures. Of the total sample, 176, or 71.5 per cent, wanted information on this subject. The sources of information were the principal or supervisor, the faculty meeting, and fellow teachers.

b. The school problem reported by the second highest number of teachers concerned disciplinary policies. One hundred and thirty-four teachers, or 54.4 per cent of the total reporting, wanted information on this subject. The sources of information were the principal or supervisor, fellow teachers, and the faculty meeting.

CONCLUSIONS

The findings of this investigation suggest several pertinent conclusions regarding the need for information on the part of new and beginning

teachers, the sources from which they received information, and the effectiveness of these sources. Within the limits of the study, the findings indicate:

1. It would appear that many new and beginning teachers receive an inadequate amount of assistance in becoming orientated and adjusted to schools in which they have just been employed.

2. The responses would seem to indicate that a number of school systems do not have a formal program established to help in the orientation and adjustment of new and beginning teachers.

3. Although much information about the school system is furnished to prospective teachers through means of a printed handbook or manual, it is apparent that additional sources of information must be used in conjunction with the printed handbook to ensure successful orientation.

4. The number of teachers reporting a concern over problems of a financial nature suggests that their interests are as high, if not higher, in these problems as in those related to teaching assignments.

5. There is little community participation in most of the existing orientation programs.

6. The data suggests that many new and beginning teachers lack an opportunity to learn about the school system and their responsibilities through meetings that are held before the opening of school.

7. After employment, but before the opening of school, there is not enough by way of written communication between the chief administrative official and the newly appointed teacher.

8. Once school has actually started, new and beginning teachers receive increasing amounts of information from their colleagues that are valuable in facilitating their orientation and adjustment.

9. Some school administrators fail to undertake leadership and direction in initiating and planning an orientation program with the result that new and beginning teachers fail to receive the benefits that otherwise could be provided for them through such programs.

10. During the school year, the concern to new and beginning teachers changes from problems of a more personal nature to problems connected with the operation of the school.

11. There is need for a school official to evaluate, at regular intervals, the problems of new and beginning teachers and the sources of information available for assisting them with the solution of their problems.

12. Most new teachers do not receive information about some agencies in the community from either the agencies themselves or from the school systems in which they are employed.

13. Although most teachers reported a wide variety of sources of information that was helpful in facilitating their orientation and adjustment, the number and variety of these sources indicate that more should be done to supplement them with a formal orientation program.

14. Although new and beginning teachers indicate that in many instances information important to their orientation and adjustment is

supplied by school administrators, it is evident that school administrators are spending valuable time providing information that could be furnished through means of printed materials, fellow teachers, and teacher organizations.

15. The evidence would indicate that some administrators are not sensitive to, or do they have an adequate knowledge of, the problems experienced by new and beginning teachers.

RECOMMENDATIONS

In light of the findings and conclusions, several recommendations are proposed regarding the need for information on the part of new and beginning teachers and the sources from which they received this information.

1. School administrators should have full knowledge of the actual problems experienced by new and beginning teachers and be aware of the sources of information that can be used to cope with these problems.

2. All school systems should have an organized and formal program planned for the orientation of all new and beginning teachers. Provision should be made in the program for the use of handbooks, manuals, informational letters, school personnel, community agencies, faculty meetings, and teacher organizations.

3. Community leaders should be invited to become active participants in the orientation program. They could be most helpful in providing materials containing information about the community, arranging for tours of community areas, assisting in the location of suitable housing for teachers, and aiding teachers in locating community services essential to their welfare.

4. The pre-opening meetings for new and beginning teachers should be a major source of information on such subjects as classroom supplies, record cards, textbooks, attendance procedures, disciplinary policies, requisitioning procedures, school philosophy, marking system, and other pertinent subjects.

5. Periodic meetings of new and beginning teachers should be held during the first two months of school for the purpose of discussing mutual problems and providing information on subjects of common concern. Meetings of this type could also be used for evaluating the success of the planned orientation program in providing needed information.

6. An experienced teacher should be assigned to each new and beginning teacher as a means of assisting in his or her orientation and adjustment to the school system.

7. School systems should provide sufficient funds, adequate facilities and equipment, and trained personnel for administering their orientation program effectively.

8. Systematic evaluations should be made for the purpose of determining the effectiveness of practices and their subsequent improvement in the orientation program.

Decision Making in the Middle Echelons of Public Education

RAYMOND E. ROYAL

DECISION making on that hierarchal level that is above the teacher's and below the superintendent's in public education has a profound effect upon the quality of public education because of its peculiar traits. Decision making here is immensely influential on public education not because the decisions in the middle echelon are more earth shaking than decisions by superintendents, school board members, or teachers, but because middle echelon decisions are more numerous. They are made in the forenoon, noon, and afternoon and are immediately felt by the pupils, teachers, and parents. Singly and cumulatively, they add quality to or subtract quality from each day's education of each child. Such decisions create the climate for learning in any school and determine the quality of teaching that molds the pupil's mind.

An A.M. decision to let the pupils see an historical movie, to bar a student council mock presidential election, to cancel an assembly because there are too many colds, to omit a unit on South American geography because the teachers must practice for the Christmas play, to stop a teacher discussing controversial subjects, or to let a teacher be sarcastic in class—these effect the quality of each day's education right in the school at once, here and now.

Middle echelon decisions do have peculiar traits. They are evaluated professionally by the levels above and below whereas a superintendent's are evaluated professionally only by those under him and the teacher by those above.

The principal, who is middle echelon, decides, therefore, not only on the basis of facts presented to him, but also on whether upper or lower echelon will approve his decision and praise him, or condemn the decision and castigate its maker. He has a third group watching him also—the parents of the children in his school, a group outside but equal to him. For instance, the principal of an elementary school in deciding whether to permit a third grade or an eleventh grade to go on a field trip to a zoo—a trip that involves transportation, accident insurance, possible sickness, and hosts of other field trip dangers—must not only consider the facts but he must also consider the philosophy of the board of education relative to field trips and the opinion of his superintendent.

He must also consider his teachers and their reaction to field trips and to this trip in particular. He must concern himself with their opinions about interruptions of regular class work for field trips, their value, the difficulties they create, and their evaluation. He must be alert to his

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parents and their views regarding field trips. Are they *pro* or *con*, zealous or lukewarm about field trips?

In every decision, whether he admits it or not, the principal decides questions with referents above and below and outside at his level. The principal suspends a child. How will it look to the upper level? The lower? He promotes because a parent protested a teacher's mark. How will it look above and below and outside? He flunks no one. He fails seven per cent according to normal curve. He is influenced in his decision by these groups peering over his shoulder—the teachers, the superintendent, and the parents.

Middle echelon is victim of pressures from above and below to make certain kinds of decisions. Superintendents may have already expressed their formalized opinion in a handbook, the principal must follow. Teachers use words or attitudes or salutations or whispers, enthusiasm or lack of it, to show a principal how they look upon any matter requiring his decision. Our middle echelon man is pressurized from above and below; he becomes the matrix in a waffle iron.

Sometimes principals make decisions without full evaluation of the facts because of this pressure from above and below. Sometimes the problem demanding decision has been pre-categorized by an atmosphere in the schools, by expressed or implied opinions of the people involved and the principal is caught in a previously established pattern which he sometimes has no will to break.

Middle echelon decisions are characterized by their inconsistency. Such inconsistency may arise because middle echelon lacks a sustained policy or philosophy for a decision-making guide. Such inconsistency may arise from the erratic philosophy or policy of the higher echelon which, in formulating policy on which middle echelon makes decisions, itself wavers and shifts.

New board members, a realignment of loyalties on a board of education, a new superintendent, or a new mayor or municipal finance officer requires the decision maker to revise his whole approach to decision making and negate what previously he has affirmed. Maybe the superintendent's interpretation of board policy may change or become refined or undergo redefinition.

Pressures from below may shift and be erratic because an old-time teacher, the unlabeled leader of the faculty retires, or loses her leadership and the newer power has new ideas. This happens often relative to kinds and amount of homework, ways of marking, make-up policies—especially if the principal lets expression of faculty opinion influence his decision.

Sometimes new philosophies of education and for decision making arise to harass middle echelon not only from above and below but also from the parents of his pupils. A shift in the public opinion of how a pupil should be educated, whether his education should be stiff or easy, aca-

demic or manual, causes middle echelon to be subjected to pressures different from those of recent past and his decisions are thereby changed.

Teacher decisions in the classroom affect pupils who are immature, dependent, and captive. Superintendent's decisions are not as numerous or as immediate and deal with finances, personnel, *etc.* But middle echelon decisions are constant, many immediate, involving mature adults, parents, children, and teachers. Middle echelon decisions are forever being required and sought by pupils, teachers, parents, and superintendents.

He is harrassed by everybody to make a decision and his decision making process becomes less than ideal. Harrassment makes for irritation which results in prejudiced, unconsidered, and hasty decisions. Harrassment makes for a predeliction to follow precedent. It is easier, when harrassed, to do what the previous principal did; to decide as the teachers, the above wants, or the parents want; to make the comfortable, accepted, but not always educational decision. Sometimes middle echelon's tolerance of harrassment may be low and his decisions may be little more than emotional explosions angrily shouted in the general direction of everybody.

Decision making in middle echelon is made more difficult by opposing philosophies existing between the level above and the level below. Ways to handle pupils, how they learn, proper disciplinary measures, methodology, parental relations, public relations, and student evaluation—these issues and others are approached differently by teachers and by superintendents and board members.

Middle echelon knows each will evaluate any decision in the framework of his views and, consequently, his decisions are sometimes bicamerally satisfactory. Or, like the oracular answers of the Greek gods, are not decisions at all.

The decision maker in the middle echelon must also explain his decisions, especially if they are unusual and precedent breaking to his teachers, his superior administrators, and to his parents. Knowing his limitations in explanation, he makes decisions that require little explanation or excuses or decisions that everyone accepts automatically. Decisions he cannot explain clearly and logically and profitably to himself, he will avoid.

Middle echelon decisions that need to be evaluated professionally by levels above and below, that are subjected to pressure, that are sometimes inconsistent, and that are based on erratic and shifting philosophies are vital to the quality of public education because they are so numerous, so immediate in their effect, and so impactful on the pupils in the schools.

Middle echelon decisions must be improved through concentrated study and research on their traits, qualities, and motives. And the result of such study and research must be disseminated to the thousands upon thousands of principals at all levels whose daily decisions have such a profound impact upon the quality of each day's education for each child in each school, in each day, and in each year in this country.

Considering Teacher Load in Large Nebraska High Schools

FLOYD H. HOLMGRAIN, JR.

ONE of the most important problems in a good school is determining the teacher load in such a way as to enable the teachers to do their most effective work. Many teachers feel their loads are excessively heavy and that great inequities exist in the assignment of their loads. There seems to be general agreement that teacher load should be assigned on a fair and equitable basis; however, this is not always the case.

The problem of teacher load is officially recognized by four of the six regional accrediting agencies of colleges and secondary schools which recommend standards for the maximum pupil-teacher ratio and number of class periods taught per week per teacher. Like many other standards of the American public school systems, standards with regard to maximum class size and periods taught lack uniformity from state to state. Recent investigators have realized that the equitable determination of teacher load is complex and have developed mathematical formulas for a more accurate measure.

To discuss teacher load with understanding, we must first consider what it is. Teacher load consists of all classroom and out-of-class responsibilities officially assigned to teachers. A better understanding of what teacher load is may be had by dividing it into two major areas: teaching load and cooperation load. Teaching load consists of the actual classroom teaching assignment and those out-of-class duties directly related to the classes taught, such as preparing learning materials and correcting papers and tests. Cooperations include such out-of-class responsibilities as teachers' meetings and committee work.

During the past several years, most school administrators have said that certain teachers are more capable than others. Some tendency has been to overload the capable teachers to the detriment of the over-all effectiveness of the educational program.

THE DOUGLAS FORMULA

Many attempts have been made since 1922 to devise an objective formula for measuring teacher load. More than 50 different methods for measuring teacher load have been devised. They contain such factors as class periods, duplicate assignments, number of preparations, number

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of pupils, cooperations, length of class periods, subject weight, and standard teaching loads.

One of the most frequently used formulas for determining teacher load was developed by Harl R. Douglass.¹ Douglass's interest in measuring teacher load covers a span of over three decades. In 1928 he developed a formula which he revised in 1932 and 1950. The result is expressed as a certain number of Douglass "load units."

Of the many different formulas attempting to measure teacher load, the Douglass formula seems to be the most objective and comprehensive. It weighs the principal items objectively so that the results may be directly compared between teachers and departments or schools.

The efficiency of the Douglass formula is substantiated by the fact it has been used successfully by national groups, in many research studies, in hundreds of public schools throughout the nation, and is recommended by leading educators.

A RECENT INVESTIGATION

A study of the teacher load in the large Nebraska public high schools for the academic year of 1958-59 was recently completed. Only full-time public school classroom teachers of grades 10 through 12 were included in the study. Two-hundred-seventy-one teachers in these systems participated in the study. Of these, 139, or 51 per cent, were men with 132, or 49 per cent, women teachers. The median years of professional preparation was 5.01 and the median years of experience was 11.7.

The Teacher Load

The analysis of the data and computation of the teacher load revealed:

1. Variations in the teacher load were apparent both when comparing the subject matter areas and the individual school systems. While some reduction of the median load for the teachers is indicated, an even more urgent need is the equalization of teacher loads within each school. The range of teacher load for all teachers was from 11.45 to 43.63. Douglass units, while a maximum of 30 units is recommended by Douglass. The average teacher load was 29.88 Douglass units. The averages for the teaching load and cooperation load were 24.48 and 5.40 units, respectively. The highest teacher-load average by subject area of 38.85 Douglass units was reported by the agriculture teachers; the lowest of 26.52 units by the industrial arts teachers.

2. The above figures point out that there was a variation in the teacher load of approximately 4:1, indicating a definite lack of objective and equitable assignment policies and practices.

¹ Douglas, Harl R. *Modern Administration of Secondary Schools*. New York: Ginn and Company. 1954 also see "Revised Norms for High-School Teaching Load," by H. R. Douglass and K. L. Noble (December 1954, pp. 97-98) and "Median Teacher Load for Junior High Schools Based Upon the Revised Douglas Load Formula" by H. R. Douglass and J. L. Rowe (November 1955, pp. 34-37) both in *THE BULLETIN of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, issues numbers 206 and 214 respectively.

3. In considering their load, 140, or 55 per cent, of the teachers felt their loads were light. Only eight per cent believed their loads were extremely heavy. In general, the men teachers appeared to be slightly less satisfied with their teaching assignment than the women teachers.

4. Of the teachers, 170, or 63 per cent, indicated they felt little strain in their teaching assignment. This is an emotional response. Some teachers who were carrying a light teacher load reported they were under considerable strain. Others who appeared to be carrying a heavy teacher load reported little strain.

5. The average daily number of pupils taught by all the teachers was 134 pupils. The physical education teachers had the highest average with a daily average number of 199 pupils; industrial arts teachers had the lowest with an average of 112 pupils.

6. The average number of periods, including periods of varying length, taught per week per teacher was 23. Of the teachers, 150, or 55 per cent, taught from 25 to 29 periods per week. In regard to free time, about 14 per cent, or 38 teachers, stated they had from 0 to 2 free or unassigned periods each week; 159, or 59 per cent, from 3 to 5 free periods. The teachers reported that 128, or 47 per cent, of them were able conveniently to spend their unassigned periods in their own classroom; the other 53 per cent spent their free periods elsewhere. Some teachers reported they spent their free time in the halls, in the gymnasium bleachers, or other places. This situation aggravates or increases the effects of teacher load for those teachers.

7. The cooperating teachers reported that 153, or 56 per cent, received extra pay for extra work; however 180, or 66 per cent, of them felt that there should be extra pay for extra duties. Many commented that, if salaries were more adequate, they would prefer an even distribution of the extra duties among all the teachers.

Related Factors

In the study, a list of specific conditions was presented to the teachers who were asked to report the presence or absence of each condition and its effect on teacher load. Over 60 per cent of the teachers reported the presence of each of the following conditions as tending to lighten the teacher load: (1) friendly sympathetic principal; (2) responsive pupils in the majority; and (3) school library service.

The unfavorable conditions reported most frequently that tended to make the teacher load heavier were as follows, although in no instance did a majority of the teachers experience any of the particularly unfavorable conditions: (1) inadequate workroom facilities; (2) classroom interruptions; and (3) inadequate texts and supplies.

CONCLUSIONS

There seem little, if any, doubt that the teacher load in the schools studied is unevenly distributed, and for many teachers excessively heavy.

The most significant finding in the study, therefore, was the need to equate the load for all teachers in the schools. Three recommended steps are proposed in the belief that they will be helpful in dealing effectively with the teacher load problem. They are as follows:

1. School administrators and classroom teachers should work together to develop policies governing the size of the teacher load and the equitable distribution of responsibilities.
2. Each teacher's load should be studied by the use of a formula, such as the Douglass formula, as a basis for equalizing loads.
3. Facts should be readily available regarding the teacher load of each individual teacher.

The Midwestern High School Schedule

A. W. STURGES

OVER three hundred years ago the settlers of the Massachusetts Bay Colony enacted a law that would require parents and masters to teach children to read and write. Since that time there have been laws, recommendations, committees, reports, and a number of other forces that have influenced the expansion of the original concept of "to read and write" to that of "educating the child for life as a responsible citizen and individual." To accomplish this responsibility, public secondary schools have added courses to the existing programs as additional needs or wants of the students were identified. The modern high school offers a variety of courses; scheduling within the usual school day has become a complex problem in most secondary schools.

In general, professional educators have worked with several methods of constructing the daily schedule. They have not studied the advantages of different schedules in terms of staff and building utilization. This leaves the administrator in a position of constructing the daily schedule in one of several ways without knowing the comparative advantages of schedules of different types, such as eight forty-minute periods and six fifty-five minute periods, the best time for scheduling activities, *etc.*

This study was designed to determine current practices, trends, and comparative advantages with respect to different types of schedules of recitations in a sample of North Central Association secondary schools in five states. To collect the necessary data, visits were made to each office

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of the North Central Association State Chairman of Iowa, Illinois, Minnesota, Missouri, and Wisconsin. Reports were examined of 938, or 97 per cent of the member schools for the 1958-59 school year.

Additional information was obtained on the scheduling of activities and classes by visiting 106 selected schools (11.3 per cent of the total number of schools in the study) according to their size and type of schedule. Interviews were held with regard to their schedule, with the principal and/or superintendent in each visited school, and forms were left with the administrator for distribution to the classroom teachers to permit their rating of the schedule under which they worked. A total of 836 forms from teachers was received (60.7 per cent of the teachers in schools visited). These forms provided information on teacher load and opinions about the type of schedule employed in their school.

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS

Organization of the Daily Schedule

Table I is a summary of the daily schedule, for 938 schools.

TABLE I—The Daily Schedule, a Summary of Findings

<i>Item</i>	<i>Range</i>	<i>Mode</i>	<i>Comments</i>
Opening Time	7 A.M.-9:30 A.M.	8:30 A.M.	Schools of over 500 enrollment tended to open earlier
Dismissal Time	12 NOON-5:30 P.M.	3:30 P.M.	Schools of over 500 enrollment tended to close earlier
Length of Day	5:30-8:10 hrs.	7:03 hrs.	
Passing Time	1 min.-8 min.	3.5 min.	Schools over 500 enrollment averaged one minute longer passing time than schools of less enrollment
Period Length	40 min.-75 min.	55.5 min.	
No. of Periods	5-11 per day	6	40% of all schools used 6 periods 26% of all schools used 7 periods 22% of all schools used 8 periods
Lunch Period:			
Single	19-120 min.	45 min.	
Split	20-60 min.	39 min.	A regular period is split, students are excused for lunch by sections
Staggered	20-70 min.	45 min.	The lunch period extends over more than one class period

As indicated in Table I, forty per cent of the schools included in the study used a six-period day. The next most popular organization was a seven-period day, with approximately 30 per cent of the schools using this type; approximately 22 per cent used an eight-period day. The affect of the number of periods on the size of the study hall can be seen in Table II.

TABLE II—Percentage of Students in Study Hall per Period for Schools According to Schedule and Enrollment Group

No. of Schools by Enrollment- Size Group	Type of Schedule					
	6 period		7 period		8 period	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
0-249	8	25.6	13	25.9	7	23.7
250-499	17	22.0	12	20.6	5	23.0
500-999	15	15.5	4	21.5	6	20.8
1000 and above	13	16.2	3	18.6	3	25.3
Total Schools	53		32		21	
Mean Per Cent		17.5		21.1		23.9

Several attempts to change unsatisfactory study hall conditions were reported by teachers and administrators. Following are examples, described by administrators:

1. Students scheduled for study hall first and last period were not required to be at school. They are selected by the counselor, principal, and class adviser.
2. All study halls are administered by students. Most schools using this approach had teachers on call.
3. Students take five subjects, the fifth elected with the advice of the counselor. Physical education was considered a sixth subject.
4. The use of "honor" study halls.
5. On a two-semester basis, teachers would have five classes plus a study hall one semester. They would assist in scheduling students for their study hall, which would be held in their regular classroom. There were some teachers assigned a "floating status," permitting teachers with full loads to obtain some free time. The six-period schedule was used, thus some time in class was used for supervised study.
6. The employment of a study hall supervisor.
7. Assignment from study hall to physical education, driver training, music, typing, and some other classes.

The Scheduling of Activities

Athletics and music were most often scheduled every day, regardless of enrollment group. The frequency with which the school paper and annual were scheduled, increased as the enrollment increased, since larger schools more often had a journalism or publications course which provided the school publications. Other activities were most often scheduled for three or fewer meetings per month.

There was a systematic variation in practices for scheduling athletic activities depending on the size of the school. In schools of enrollment 0-249, most athletic activities were scheduled during a regular school period. In schools of enrollment 250-499, less than half of those schools visited reported athletic activities scheduled during a regular period. In schools of enrollment over 1,000 students, all administrators indicated that athletic practices were scheduled after school.

Approximately fourteen per cent of all the schools used an activity period. The time of day in which the activity period was scheduled varied considerably. The most popular time was the period following the noon period. When the last period of the day was used for an activity period, athletic practice was usually included. Schools of under 250 enrollment occasionally varied the length of class periods to enable activities to meet. Teachers were rather critical of the time devoted to activities. Although their criticisms were recognized by most administrators, there was no immediate solution to the problem of scheduling activities.

Teacher Load

Table III presents the average number of classes per teacher, according to enrollment group and type of schedule.

TABLE III—Summary of Teacher Load by Type of School

Mean	Type of Schedule					
	6 period		7 period		8 period	
	N	Average	N	Average	N	Average
Number of Classes	407	4.47	225	5.01	117	5.42
Number of Study Halls	410	0.45	227	0.60	118	0.79
Number of Students Weekly	415	540.84	229	520.56	117	554.83
Number of Classes Plus Study Halls		4.93		5.61		6.21

The heavier teaching load of teachers in an eight-period schedule may be seen in the number of study halls, classes, and students taught weekly. Teachers in schools employing an eight-period schedule taught an average of 5.4 classes per day, or about 21.4 per cent more than teachers in schools having a six-period schedule. Teachers in schools organized with an eight-period schedule also taught more students per week, and more often had study halls than did teachers in schools with a six-period schedule. Table IV compares the teacher load by type of schedule.

TABLE IV—Comparison of Teacher Load in Per Cent by Type of Schedule

Item	8 period vs. 6 period	8 period vs. 7 period	7 period vs. 6 period
Number of Classes	21.29	8.16	12.23
Number of Classes Plus Study Halls	26.57	10.68	12.97
Number of Students Taught Weekly	2.59	6.58	—3.90

Criticisms by Teachers and Administrators

In schools using a six-period schedule, most teachers felt class time was adequate. Teachers of industrial arts, agriculture, home economics, and science suggested longer class periods, ranging from 60 minutes to 120 minutes. Most of the criticisms were directed toward extraclass activities and study halls. Of considerable concern to the teachers was the interruption of their classes for meetings, assemblies, etc. About eight per cent of the teachers criticized class size as being too large.

In schools using the seven-period schedule, the most frequent criticism was the varying lengths of class periods. Because schools using seven periods more often used periods of different lengths, teachers criticized the inability to maintain uniform progress among class sections that varied as much as fifteen minutes per day. In schools using an eight-period schedule, the short length of the class period was mentioned most often. They also criticized the number of study halls as being too many and too large. As a whole, administrators were aware of current criticisms of various types of schedules. They most often cited transportation difficulties, building limitations, and limited financial resources as the reasons for maintaining the present organization.

CONCLUSIONS

Administrators and teachers alike seem to prefer the elimination or reduction of study halls. Similarly, they agree on the desirability of activities, and the availability of electives for students of varying abilities and interests. However, criticisms seem to indicate a lack of communication between teachers and administrators.

A 1937 study by Hughes and Herron¹ indicated the class length was 40 minutes. This study indicated class length had increased to a modal length of 55 minutes. It also indicated the popularity of the six-period schedule, and the seven-period schedule with periods of varying lengths. With the addition of courses and increased enrollment, some schools indicated they were forced to add a period and maintain the same school-day length. The school day is still approximately seven hours in length, not markedly changed from that of twenty years ago.

RECOMMENDATIONS

First, administrators should accept the responsibility of informing their staff of the reasons for particular scheduling procedures. Staff members should also be invited to participate in the scheduling of classes and activities. Improved communication between administration and teachers was indicated repeatedly by statements made by them. Quite often, similar criticisms were raised regarding the schedule, and staff members questioned the reason for certain practices.

¹ Hughes, J. M., and Harry H. Herron, "Scheduling Practices in Four-Year High Schools," *The School Review*, Vol. 45, No. 7, September 1937.

Second, the current number of classes and activities places an undue hardship on some schools. Although both teachers and administrators seemed to agree that their facilities were being taxed, few schools were found that were evaluating current offerings in an attempt to discontinue their inclusion. It would seem that a serious attempt should be made on examining the relative value of specific courses in light of increased cost of instruction.

A Brief Survey of Federal Aid to Education

HERMAN O. HOVDE

DAILY, more attention is directed toward public schools and to education in general. The once forgotten phase of our civilization is receiving scrutiny and thought. One of the important phases of the attention being given to schools concerns the matter of Federal financial support. Contrary to casual thought, Federal support to education is not new. It antedates the constitution of our land, which makes no direct mention of the subject. Prior to establishment of the Constitution, in 1785, a proposal was made to provide for public schools. The first effort failed; but, in the ordinance of 1787, one section of land, No. 16, in each township of Federal land granted to the states was reserved for public schools.¹ On May 20, 1785, the Congress of the Confederation adopted the following: "There shall be reserved for the United States out of every township the four lots being numbered 8, 11, 26, and 29 for future sale. There shall be reserved the lot 16 of every township for the maintenance of public schools within the said township."

The first grant of land was in Ohio in 1787. In addition to section 16, two entire townships were reserved for a university. This was apparently a precedent, for one or more sections per township has been granted each state of public domain since, and at least two townships for an institution of higher learning in each of the twelve states admitted to the union between 1802 and 1848. Fourteen states admitted to the union between 1849-1890 had four sections per township reserved for schools. States

¹ "A Brief History of Federal Aid to Education, Data for 1934-35 and a Bibliography." U.S.D.I. Bulletin No. 162, 1935, Timon Covert, Specialist in Education, U.S. Office of Education, Washington 25, D.C.

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admitted after 1890 also had four sections per township reserved for education.

The land granted above was to be held in perpetuity for schools and the proceeds from sales were to be so kept. In some states, great waste and mismanagement gave small yields of the property, but the total was a considerable sum, estimated at from one half to as high as one and one half billions of dollars.

From 1802 to 1888, swamp lands were granted to states, where such property existed. In 1833, 1837, and in 1841 other grants were made to states for schools, entirely or in part. Since 1889, all percentum grants to states from Federal land have gone to schools. In 1907, a percentage of income from forest lands was given to schools. Since 1920, grants from leases of land mineral rights have gone to schools.

In 1917 the Smith Hughes Act provided a direct grant for vocational education,² embodying some Federal control. Other grants had been general not specifying method of use, curriculum, or educational standards.

Summarizing, a total of 77,000,000 acres of land was granted for schools. In addition, another four million acres were given for higher education.

To determine the status of Federal support at present requires much interpretation, in addition to investigation. The programs are numerous and varied.³ Among the programs were the following categories:

- A. Elementary and Secondary
 - 1. Promotion of curricula
 - 2. School lunch
 - 3. Education for dependent children
 - 4. Education for Indians and territorial schools
- B. Higher Education
 - 1. Research grants to colleges and universities
 - 2. Higher education of special groups, of individuals, or individuals in special fields
 - 3. Land-grant schools, maritime schools, and other special institutions
 - 4. International education
 - 5. Education and training for public service
- C. Non-specialized Educational Activities
 - 1. Veterans
 - 2. On-farm training
 - 3. Vocational and rehabilitation
 - 4. Non-military subjects in military establishments
- D. In-service Training for Government and Non-Federal Employees
- E. Surplus Property Distribution

² Moehlman, Arthur. *School Administration*. New York: Houghton Mifflin Co. 1940, Part 5. "The Federal Government and Education," pp. 809-885; Smith Lever Act in 1914 provided for state matching of funds. The Smith Hughes Act of 1917 was the first direct Federal aid to secondary education.

³ Allen, H. P. *Federal Government and Education*. New York: McGraw Hill, 1950.

Curriculum was a field not entered by the Federal government for a long period of time, but at present the Justice Department operates a citizenship education program; and aviation education is provided by the Civil Aeronautics Administration; and the Treasury Department has a School Savings Program.

Vocational education is handled by the U.S. Office of Education and the Federal Security Agency. Grants to states for vocational education come from the Federal Security Agency, which also handles food conservation education.

The school lunch program has duplication between the Department of Agriculture and the Office of Education. Early experience in this program proved that Federal agencies should operate only through the State Departments of Education, which are in many cases very poorly organized; but this method was far superior to working with individual districts.

Dependents of government employees are educated in many different ways. Some by direct grants, some by Federal schools, and some at their own effort entirely. On some Federal reservations, schools are operated by the Federal government; for example, children of military personnel in foreign stations. In other areas, Federal funds are used to supplement public school funds and pupils attend nearby schools.

Research and leadership of Federal education activities is in the hands of the Office of Education, but in three divisions.

Annually, Congress has considered bills to support education. Many of these have included support in building programs, but all such have failed passing in the House until the spring of 1960 when such a proposal was passed.⁴ The Senate has been more friendly to education, since southern states have great need for improvement in financing schools. The 1960 bill passed by the Senate provided for support to building, but also included a provision that funds might be used for teacher's salaries.

The National Defense Education Act of 1958 provided for Federal aid in testing and guidance, for improving teaching of science and mathematics, and for improvement of foreign language teaching. It also granted scholarship funds;⁵ fellowships for advanced study; foreign language development divided into centers and institutes; research in the use of TV, films, radio and other media; area vocational education; science information service; and improvement of statistical services. The act was divided into ten titles to care for the above areas of education. Grants were made for four years with increases in some areas after the first year, in others remaining constant for the period. The student loan fund was to be administered by the colleges with the proviso that the school match on a ratio of \$1 for \$9 of Federal funds.

The program of fellowships was also administered by the colleges as far as actual grants to individuals were concerned. Provisions were made

⁴ "Aid to Education Passes House," *Science*, V. 131:656 3, June 1960.

⁵ "National Defense Education Act; A Full Report," *School Life*, V. 41: p. 2-32, October 1958.

for three-year grants—the first year, \$2,000, second year \$2,200, and the third year, \$2,400 with \$400 annually per dependent in addition. The area vocational education is designed to aid those who have not attained skill enough to carry on the important minor jobs of defense work. It aids those who are fifteen years old or more, who have completed junior high school.

The question of Federal support to education has brought out many arguments. Against it are such men as Barry Goldwater, Senator from Arizona, who states that he “fears Washington more than Moscow.”⁶

C. F. Phillips, President of Bates College, Maine, indicates that Federal tax expenditures have risen from \$3.9 billions in 1932-33 to a proposed budget of \$71.8 billions in 1957.⁷ The only remedy for this immense drain of funds is to cut down on the demands made on the Federal government for services, and education is one that can be supported locally. In his area of Maine, \$24,000,000 was being raised, but an added \$7,000,000 annually could be raised without undue strain on the local economy.

Catholic papers⁸ have been opposed to Federal aid unless grants to parochial schools were to be included. Southerners, generally strongly for Federal aid, refuse to consider it when the bill includes a provision that no funds are to go to segregated schools.⁹

Another fear of Federal support is that local control will be lost. The argument is that “He who pays the piper calls the tune.” Local control is an American tradition, schools having been established in the earliest communities, which due to distance from previously established areas, had to be originated and developed by the people of the new location. The school thus became a major part of the community, and interest in its program, activities, and financing was an outgrowth of the need for a school. When, in the course of developing civilization, districts were established for school purposes, membership on the board of directors (or whatever other title was given) became much sought after, and the people continued to feel that the school was a part of them. In areas where population is sparse today, the member of the school committee or board is regarded as a leading citizen. Any tendency to remove this organization is resented and fought by many people.

Another argument against Federal support is that it tends to reduce local responsibility. Destroying the image of the school and its directing body as outlined in the preceding paragraph might lead to a feeling that school support no longer was a matter for local concern and the entire burden would tend to shift to the Federal government.

⁶ “Yes, I Fear Washington,” *New Republic*, V. 142, pp. 5, 6 January 4, 1960.

⁷ “No Federal Aid to Schools,” C. F. Phillips, *School and Society*, V. 85, p. 206, June 8, 1957.

⁸ *Time*, V. 75, p. 17, June 6, 1960.

⁹ “Myopia and Federal Aid,” *America*, V. 103, p. 326, June 4, 1960.

In support of Federal support, there are the following arguments among others:

Since the Federal government has provided for education beginning before the constitution was adopted (in 1787 in Ohio) and has continued to provide aid and education in many forms, it is now appropriate that assistance be given on a national level.

Inequality of the distribution of wealth is one argument. As V. T. Thayer cites, on pages 78 and 79 of his book,¹⁰ the District of Columbia with 303 children per 1,000 adults has \$14,308 income per child. New Mexico with 656 children per 1,000 adults has only \$3,420 income per child. Such large differences in taxable resources puts a heavy burden on the poorer areas.

The Federal government is operating many programs now; and a definite pattern, with proper financing, would be a better solution. In 1946-47, forty-one Federal aid programs to education received a total of \$2.9 billions. The following year, the expenditure for the same number of programs was \$3.5 billions. In 1950-51, sixty programs received \$2.5 billions of Federal money. Seventy-five different programs in 1952-53 received \$1.4 billions, and in 1953-54, \$1.6 billions went to 81 programs.¹¹ During this period, Federal funds for permanent educational programs tended to increase.

The importance of education for all is increased by the mobility of population, and a high standard of education in one area can be nullified by poor schools in another state which sends its people out after they have been in school. For example, Mississippi, which has low expenditures for education and low levels of achievement, sends people to California, which has high expenditures and high requirements for schooling.

The needs of our nation in this cold war period require that all be trained and able to perform at maximum level. Many able pupils in poor states receive so little education that their efficiency is not equal to their potentialities.

Since people move about by the millions, more uniformity will mean less loss when a child enters school in a new state. Federal grants to raise standards in areas now doing poorly will tend to make transfers easier.

Federal support to education is a historic fact. The amount of aid and its distribution has varied, but a tendency to increase is evident, and the inequities, which have been more and more evident in recent years, indicate a need for more uniform educational opportunity and for improved sources of school revenue. As H. W. Ernst stated, "Congress is hurrying in this its 172nd year to catch up with Aristotle who, in 300 B.C., advised

¹⁰ Thayer, V. T. *The Role of the School in American Society*. New York: Dodd Mead and Co. 1960.

¹¹ "Federal Funds for Education," *School Life*, V. 39, No. 4, p. 13.

... "The primary function of any legislative body is the education and training of its youth!"¹²

In the same article Ernst states that practically all polls in this country favor Federal support. There is definite need for a change in financing schools because real property, once 75 per cent of the wealth of the nation, now is only 25 per cent. In collecting income tax, the Federal government requires 44 cents per \$100 collected, states take about \$1.00 and local governments from \$5.00 to \$10.00 per \$100 collected.

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¹² "Federal Aid or Local Taxes," H. W. Ernst, *Nation*, V. 190, p. 491-94, June 4, 1960.

Fire Safety Through Sound Planning

CHARLES F. CARROLL

RESPONSIBILITY FOR FIRE SAFETY

RESPONSIBILITY for school safety rightfully belongs to school authorities; and, as is stated in the recent AASA bulletin, *Safety, Sanity, and the Schools*, "school officials dare not relinquish to others the responsibility for the over-all welfare of each child while he is in school." Providing for a child's safety is even more fundamental to his welfare than providing for his education. School safety is our inescapable responsibility, and I trust each of us has discharged this responsibility vigorously and successfully. (Though our topic pertains primarily to fire safety, we, as administrators, are keenly aware that planning for school safety must

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also include safety from other hazards, such as windstorm, flood, and perils of war.) Planning for fire safety definitely involves certain specialized approaches, many of which, of course, are basic to over-all planning for general safety.

CONCEPTS OF EDUCATIONAL PLANNING

Current concepts of educational planning involve consideration of philosophy, goals, personnel, techniques for getting a job done, and evaluation—among others. It seems to me that sound planning for fire safety depends, to a great degree, upon three kinds of planning: educational, psychological, and technological. As an educator, I submit the basic proposition that *sound educational planning is absolutely essential to school safety.*

PLANNING FOR FIRE SAFETY ALL-INCLUSIVE

In planning for fire safety, it is necessary that persons concerned be included in the several phases of the over-all planning. This concept of planning suggests that architect, superintendent, school board members, principals, teachers, pupils, parents, and members of the custodial staff have—at the proper time and in appropriate combinations—an opportunity to share in formulating standards and policies for fire safety. In this way fire safety seriously becomes everyone's business—but on a sound, business-like basis. As all facets of fire safety are considered—construction, maintenance, attitudes, prevention, evacuation, and the human element—policies and procedures evolve which have meaning at all levels and which, in view of their being cooperatively formulated, are more likely to be accepted at all levels. Planning for fire safety must be all-inclusive.

PLANNING FOR COOPERATION AND WHOLESOME ATTITUDES TOWARD FIRE SAFETY

Achieving wholesome attitudes toward fire safety is dependent upon well-conceived plans for accomplishing this definite goal. Attitudes can be developed. For this reason, as well as those listed above, all persons directly concerned with fire safety should participate in its planning. Sharing in the planning for fire safety, at whatever level, results in understanding of the problems involved and in a willingness to cooperate in the resolution of these problems. Attitudes of personal responsibility emerge from cooperative planning; and, as a result of these attitudes, it is possible for fire safety to become a reality in any school or community. As administrators plan with school board members and teachers and as teachers plan with parents and pupils, an atmosphere is developed in which fire safety is accepted as a matter of priority. In such a climate as this, education for safety can readily become integrated into the total school program. In such an atmosphere, education for safety assumes the dignity and status necessary for widespread respect among *all* groups.

PLANNING FOR SAFETY IN BUILDING FACILITIES

In the planning of a new school and in the reconditioning of an old one, planning for safety is all-important. But safety is a relative thing, a matter of degree, not an absolute. Planning for perfect safety would lead to a concrete bunker, with many exits and panic bars, filled with incombustible equipment and furnishings, including paper and people. The educational situation would preclude such a solution; so would a concern for aesthetics and the ever-present budget. As a result, it is necessary to make judgments which may lead to compromises, knowing full well, of course, that no conscientious school administrator or architect would deliberately set about to create dangerous and hazardous situations.

Administrators and their boards must demand safe schools and taxpayers must be willing to spend money to achieve this end, whether facilities are new or of the remodeled variety. The temptation is often great to neglect safety measures in a school that is soon to be abandoned. There is hardly a community which is not burdened with its share of old buildings which, it is felt, must be kept in use for some time to come. Some of these structures are neither educationally functional nor physically safe. Some of them fall in the category of being too poor to keep, but too good to throw away. It may be infeasible, if not impossible, to bring these facilities up to current standards for new buildings. In such situations, there is potential for real danger. In such situations we may find ourselves compromising too often and too much. As population pressures and budget problems beset us, we may not get around to spending the necessary money to provide minimum safety from fire. We may add a fire escape or two, we may add detection devices in seemingly appropriate places, we may replace ceiling material here and there and thereby lull ourselves into a false sense of security without having upset the fiscal picture too much.

The time comes, and often annoyingly, when certain buildings should be abandoned. In such situations, school administrators, school board members, and building inspectors should have the courage to make this decision, even in face of taxpayer complaints. But because safety is a relative thing, and because many buildings are not obvious fire traps, the decision to abandon is not always easy or clear cut. But, the following decision should always be clear-cut and definite: *So long as a school building is in use, there is no justification for its not being safe.*

In addition to the attitude of the superintendent and his board, the attitude of the architect and his engineers is important in this area. A compelling concern for the safety and welfare of people will give the architect courage to withstand the temptations of giving in to the severity of budget limitations or seeking relief from reasonable code restrictions. He will insist, if need be, that safety is an all-important ingredient in his mixture of materials and method. Frequently, he is more of an expert in safety than well-informed administrators; in such instances, the mutual exchange of knowledge is beneficial to everyone, especially those who

for a number of years will use the buildings under consideration. Among other things the architect will insist on:

- adequate electrical installations
- isolation of boiler rooms and such storage and maintenance rooms which may constitute potential sources of fires
- hardware of quality and dependability
- site planning which will provide easy access for fire-fighting equipment.

Building codes—even though local for the most part—are gaining prestige as techniques for guaranteeing safety in the area of construction. Fortunate indeed are the children who live in communities where mandatory codes *require* adherence to minimum provisions for fire safety. But architects and administrators should not rely only on compliance with codes to provide adequate safety. Codes only state *minimum* requirements; furthermore, they are subject to various interpretations.

PLANNING FOR THOROUGH MAINTENANCE

Attitudes toward fire safety are again of prime importance as one considers the necessity for thorough maintenance. Nothing is more significant than good housekeeping procedures within a school system. The obvious trash may be hauled away regularly; but the "borderline" stuff—old paper, packing boxes, materials, and equipment which "might" be useful again some day—these things too readily accumulate. The demand of school personnel for more storage space must be coupled with the warning that such spaces must be carefully maintained.

Frequent inspections of schools should be arranged: daily by the custodial staff and principals; somewhat less frequently by other inspectors. Regularly scheduled inspections by engineers and periodic visits by local fire department personnel should also be encouraged. Their objectivity may reveal hazards overlooked by school personnel. These inspections should cover not only the obvious deficiencies, but also the operation of exit hardware, detection devices, alarm systems, emergency lighting, and extinguishing equipment. All of this demands specific planning.

PLANNING FOR EFFECTIVE EVACUATION PROCEDURES

A genuine concern for safety from fire invariably finds expression in efforts to develop effective techniques for evacuating buildings quickly. Fire drills must be realistic and not militaristic; they must be imaginative and not routine. The orderly marching of complacent companies of carefree children—always out the same door at the same time of day—may lead to a panic when a real emergency comes. The blocking of a familiar exit during a drill, the choosing of an inconvenient time for fire drills—such as a lunch hour, a basketball game, a time when the principal is

absent, or a time when the weather is inclement—may be one way to insert reality into the picture.

Realistic and imaginative fire drills must provide alternate plans for evacuation; otherwise, we unintentionally contribute to uncertainty, confusion, and possible loss of life.

PLANNING IN TERMS OF POSSIBLE HUMAN ERROR

In all our planning, consideration must be given the possibility of human error because too often the human element proves to be the weakest link in the chain. From the first conference between architect and administrator to those who use the buildings daily, the importance of the human element in the total situation must be stressed constantly. Perhaps the greatest danger in fire-safety planning as practiced today is the tendency to accept one safety measure, or a limited number of measures, as providing maximum safety. How easily we are mesmerized, for example, by the single phrase "fireproof building." Yet, we know that the contents of this "fireproof" building and the activities carried on within it could easily create innumerable fire hazards. Design and materials *contribute* to a high degree of fire safety, but their contribution can never guarantee complete safety. Administrators must not be lulled into complacency because of single-story construction, with ground-level exits, enclosed fire towers, fire doors and walls, boiler rooms removed from other structures, panic hardware, and flame retardant paint.

Because of the human element, a single warning system can prove quite insufficient. If one method of alarm fails, another should immediately be at hand. Time is precious; a minute or even a fraction thereof may mean life or death for many. Since *anyone* may discover a fire, *everyone* must know what to do if he does. How to spread the alarm is something every pupil as well as every adult should know. Mechanisms, devices, equipment may help to detect danger and may send a signal to warn of fire or smoke. But mechanisms and devices are subject to failure and will need continual inspection and maintenance. Automatic devices, in which we often place too much trust, can readily create a sense of false security.

PLANNING FOR PREVENTION OF FIRE

Throughout all our planning for fire safety, emphasis should be on *prevention*. As superintendent and board members deliberate on fire safety, prevention should be foremost in their minds; as principals and teachers tackle this problem, the stress should be on *prevention*; as pupils work toward greater safety within the school—whether through regular class discussions or through student council activities—emphasis again should be on *prevention*; and, similarly, parents interested in an active safety program within the school should emphasize *prevention*.

Safety from fire is best achieved by not being where the fire is. One obvious solution comes to mind: keep people from where the fire is, or

get them away from where the fire is. Better still: *prevent the fire altogether.*

DANGERS IN UNSOUND FIRE-SAFETY PLANNING

Summarily, unsound planning for fire safety seems, most often, to result in the following situations:

1. Unnecessary prolongation of the life of inadequate and relatively unsafe buildings.
2. Unbalanced programs in which too much emphasis is placed on one aspect of safety with the consequent neglect of other equally important aspects.
3. Expenditure of funds for the same devices in all schools, though some of these devices would be of limited value in certain situations.
4. Too much reliance on design, construction, and devices with too little regard for the importance of the human element in the planning for fire safety—attitudes of understanding, cooperation, and acceptance of responsibility.

CONCLUSION

Among the criteria which demand consideration in the design of school buildings are these: safety, health, instructional adequacy, economy, flexibility, expansibility, and aesthetics—these seven—but the greatest of these is safety. With each community rests the opportunity and the responsibility to determine the priority to be given to each of these elements. In the vanguard of those who make these choices is the school superintendent!

How Do We Get Better Science Teaching?

HULDA GROBMAN

THE question today is not "Do we need better science teaching in our schools?" but rather, the questions are: "How can we get better science teaching in our schools?" "What science materials should be presented?" "How can we insure more of the kind of learning we want?"

A generally accepted objective of science teaching in recent years has been to convey an understanding of scientific methods and to develop

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scientific attitudes. However, according to the *Encyclopedia of Educational Research*, "... there have been few attempts in science teaching to relate objectives to actual classroom practices in a realistic manner." Unfortunately, recent public reaction to social issues concerning radioactive fallout, insecticides, fluoridation, food additives, and population control provides ample evidence of our past failures in developing scientific attitudes in our students.

A different kind of problem in teaching science arises from the current rapid growth of scientific knowledge—a *growth rate faster than at any other time in human history*. On the one hand, we are faced with the prospect of a doubling of scientific knowledge every ten to 15 years; and, on the other, many of our science courses are already encyclopedic. Furthermore, the time-honored practice of "coverage" of basic "facts" is inadequate in a situation where the "facts" of today may not be acceptable tomorrow. In the past, students have memorized a "complete" list of vitamins, even though yearly the number of known vitamins increases. We have demanded names of "all" the blood groups, though in recent years new kinds of blood groups have been indentified, and more will doubtless be found in the years to come. We have taught that genes are fixed determiners of human heredity and now we know many ways in which genes can be modified. We have taught scientific knowledge as absolute, when in fact it is tentative. And we have failed to prepare students to evaluate the new, and changing, scientific knowledge that will be available in their lifetime. While we have taught the scientific minutiae of yesterday, we have often failed to prepare the student for the scientific world of tomorrow.

THE BIOLOGICAL SCIENCES CURRICULUM STUDY

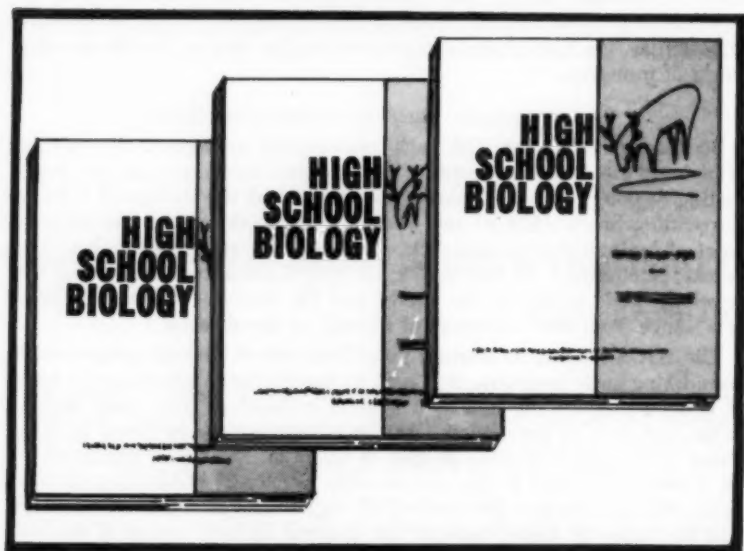
Because of its concern with such inadequacies as these in the teaching of biology, the American Institute of Biological Sciences—a society representing 84,000 professional biologists—established the Biological Sciences Curriculum Study (BSCS) two years ago, to work toward the improvement of biological education. Dr. Bentley Glass of Johns Hopkins University is chairman of the BSCS Steering Committee, the group that develops broad policy for the Study, and Dr. Arnold Grobman, on leave of absence from the University of Florida, is the director.

The BSCS took as its starting point high-school biology programs. In considering such programs, it is easy to accept their importance in terms of college preparation, and as a general cultural subject. Less obvious is the fact that in our society, science is increasingly involved in major social issues and that some degree of scientific literacy is important for all American citizens if they are to make intelligent public and personal decisions. Seventy-five per cent of all high-school students take biology, and for many of these students, the general biology course is the *only* high-school science course studied. If the secondary school is to give such students a general background, not only in biology but also in science

in general, if it is to give an understanding of scientific methods, and if it is to develop scientific attitudes, it must do so in the general biology course. This gives the high-school biology program a significance beyond that of a college preparatory program or a general cultural subject, important as these may be.

With these functions in mind, the BSCS began to prepare new high-school biology programs suitable for use in most high schools, and within the range of ability of most students. Direction for this project was given by Dr. John A. Moore of Columbia University, chairman of the BSCS Committee on Content of the Curriculum.

After eighteen months of background work, the BSCS held a Summer Writing Conference in 1960 to prepare new high-school general biology programs. Because the BSCS felt that revision of biology should be in the hands of the people who know most about the problem—the high-school teachers and the research biologists—it invited thirty high-school teachers and 30 research biologists to the Writing Conference. The selection of the writers was guided by the need for resource people from the various specialties in biology—people who are on the frontiers of scientific development—as well as by the need for broad experience and competence in teaching. The background of the 60 writers reflects this needed breadth of educational experience—a total of 1,152 years of teaching, including 33



years at the elementary-school level, 575 years at the high-school level, and 544 years at the collegiate level. The writers were assisted by educators, psychologists, editors, and artists.

The Summer Writing Conference produced three experimental versions of a new high-school biology program, complete with text, laboratory manuals, teacher's guides, and teacher's commentaries. Although each of the versions is a balanced presentation of the subject, one version takes an ecological and evolutionary approach to biology, one a genetic and developmental approach, and one a biochemical and physiological approach.

There are several reasons why three versions, rather than a single version, were prepared. *First*, in this way it is possible to give the schools a real choice among curricula rather than offering a single curriculum for all schools. *Second*, no one knows the most effective way of teaching secondary-school biology, or whether one approach to the subject is optimal for certain kinds of students or for particular teaching situations. By comparing experiences with the three different versions, it may be possible to find some answers to these questions.



BSCS 1960-61 TESTING PROGRAM

THE BSCS 1960-61 TESTING PROGRAM

The three BSCS experimental versions are being tested systematically during the current school year to determine their effectiveness in terms of the aims of the writers, and to identify aspects of the materials that need revision. A total of 118 teachers and their 14,000 students are involved in the BSCS 1960-61 Testing Program for these materials. Fifteen BSCS Testing Centers, with from six to nine teachers, have been organized in various parts of the United States. There are also 13 independent test schools, each with one biology teacher using the new materials.

Several criteria were used in setting up Testing Centers. One requisite was an interested and cooperative administration in the individual school as well as in the school system. Another was the availability of an outstanding science teacher to serve as Center leader, a teacher who was free to attend the Summer Writing Conference. Also needed were at least six cooperating biology teachers located within easy commuting distance, so that weekly Center meetings would be practical. The Center had to be near a college or university, where a competent research biologist, interested in the problems of secondary-school biology teaching, could be found to serve as consultant to the Center on technical questions of biological content. In addition, an attempt was made to include a variety of school situations—rural and urban areas, large and small schools, different sections of the country, and a variety of cultural and socio-economic backgrounds.

Several steps were taken to guarantee that the participating teachers had an opportunity to become familiar with the ideas behind the new programs. All Center leaders and consultants as well as participating teachers in independent test schools attended the Summer Writing Conference. In addition, the 118 teachers, as well as the consultants, attended a six-day briefing session to discuss the new curricula before the start of the school year.

The reactions of the teachers and principals using the new materials this year will be obtained on a periodic basis through informal reports and visits. Students will be tested in a series of tests prepared in cooperation with Educational Testing Service, to determine the extent to which students are achieving the desired learnings. Feedback obtained in these ways throughout the year will be used as guides by the 1961 Summer Writing Conference in revising the BSCS materials. The revised programs will then be tested on a larger scale during the following school year, and revised a second time before they are made generally available.

OTHER BSCS ACTIVITIES

While the new high-school general biology programs represent the major effort of the BSCS to date, its other activities in secondary-school biology include an historical study of biology teaching, the laboratory block program, and the gifted student program.

Study of Biology Teaching

In preparation for the action program to improve biology teaching at the secondary-school level, Dr. Paul DeH. Hurd of Stanford University made a comprehensive analysis of investigations of biological education since 1890, and of practices in the teaching of biology. The purpose of this study is to give a perspective to present efforts to improve the teaching of biology.

Laboratory Block Program

Even in schools where good biological laboratory facilities exist, their tremendous educational potential is seldom realized. Too often laboratory exercises are sterile, routine affairs, giving little insight into the ways in which scientists think and work, the processes by which knowledge is uncovered, and the reasons for precise measurements and controlled experiments. In an attempt to revitalize the laboratory aspects of biology teaching, the BSCS Committee on Laboratory Innovation, with Dr. Addison E. Lee of the University of Texas as chairman, is working on a block approach to supplement the BSCS general biology course materials. A laboratory block requires a six-week period of time, based on five 50-minute class periods per week. For these six weeks, all class activity—whether discussion, laboratory work, reading, or field work—centers on a single area of biology such as plant growth and development, genetics, animal growth and development, or microbes. The students progress from simple to more sophisticated experiments and gain an experience in depth in this problem area. Four laboratory blocks have been completed to date, and are being tested by some of the schools in the 1960-61 BSCS Testing Program.

Gifted Student Program

The BSCS Gifted Student Committee, with Dr. Paul F. Brandwein of Harcourt, Brace and Co. as chairman, has been considering the needs of teachers in identifying and working with science-prone students. For teachers, the committee is preparing a book including materials on identifying the gifted and on promising practices in working with the gifted, as well as a bibliography on giftedness. A second book, for both teachers and students, will include 100 research prospectuses for use by able students as an out-of-class activity. Each prospectus deals with a real research problem, the solutions to which are not yet known. Each is suitable for investigation by the student and should prove stimulating to him.

Although thus far, the BSCS¹ energies have been directed primarily at the secondary-school level, it is recognized that no secondary-school program alone will prove a panacea for the ills of biological education.

¹ The Biological Sciences Curriculum Study publishes a quarterly *Newsletter* which is sent free to persons interested in biological education. To be placed on the NEWSLETTER mailing list, write: BSCS, University of Colorado, Boulder, Colorado. Future issues of the *Newsletter* will discuss selection of schools to participate in the 1961-62 BSCS Testing Program.

Secondary-school programs are part of a continuum from the elementary and junior high school through the collegiate levels; secondary-school programs can be considered only as a step in this continuum. Thus, it is planned that the BSCS will soon direct attention to the other levels of biological education, to permit development of a systematic program from kindergarten through college, with each grade building on the learning that has gone before.

The Mark of the Best

JAMES W. RUSSELL

GRADES mark the child for life. His transcript becomes a passbook. If unable to produce one, he may be barred from the best opportunities. Teachers produce these valuable marks in vast numbers like a mint turning out money. Teachers are becoming increasingly influential in determining the fate of an individual.

TRENDS FAVORING AN INCREASE IN THE IMPORTANCE OF GRADES

Historically speaking, there have been many forces working together to make these marks important. The popularity of high-school and college attendance is a primary factor. It has simply become important to come to know many things that can be most efficiently studied in formal education. Most people earn their living by working for others and the latter insist on having educated workers.

Cultural forces have been just as influential as vocational. Education is compatible with our traditions of participation in government and individual responsibility for proper use of automobiles and a rising standard of living. Fathers send their daughters to college instead of providing a dowry. Going to college is the thing to do.

Mobility from one educational institution to another is also fostered. Transferability has contributed to the willingness of Americans to attend school and college, regardless of how they might feel about the value of education for its own sake.

Events since World War II have tended to work toward the acceleration of these trends favoring the importance of teacher grades. The population explosion, efforts toward industrialization in many other lands, the increase in competition in export markets, and the expansion of communism have called for greater efforts on the part of our people to keep up.

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For all the benefits of "learner-centered," "life-adjustment," and other approaches that have perhaps erroneously been labeled "progressive," they have continued to be criticized by some community leaders. The outcome of this type of controversy could effect the fate of grades, since evaluation is a major issue. Although the "progressivists" tend to see evaluation in a broad perspective, they do not necessarily neglect to issue grades nor do their marks necessarily have any less effect on the future experiences of the learner.

Ideally, this type of controversy would be resolved by "scientific research." Grades in general have tended to do very well in comparison with other sources of data for use in prediction and it should not be assumed that this experience has applied only to those that have been issued by teachers employing only the purest traditional methods of classroom procedure. Sometimes a test will work better than grades, however, the latter have tended over the years and on numerous studies to predict a little better than tests. For instance, first term college grades are the best source of information about how an engineering student is likely to perform in his future engineering courses.

THE UNREALIZED POTENTIAL IN GRADING PRACTICES

For all the evidence favoring the predictive ability of teacher grades as opposed to other sources of information, the evaluation procedures of American teachers appear to be greatly improvable. If they have worked so well in spite of all the inconsistencies and informality, surely it would be possible to lift them up a couple of notches in dependability and predictability.

Grading practices might, for instance, be standardized in the sense that psychological group testing tends to be standardized. Professional organizations of various kinds, preferably not a government agency, might function to coordinate activities along these lines.

Instead of a teacher giving a grade of B, for instance, he might make it B47268. On the back of the transcript, the meaning of the scale for each number would be described. The institution would have the description of the course in a bulletin or catalogue. Between the numbers and course description, the grades would have more meaning than is to be expected from just the letter and course description. Even secondary schools should have publications describing their courses.

The dimensions scaled could pertain to such things as the level of ability and achievement of the class, the percentile range, the choice of a model for the content and teaching methods, plus the type of evaluation procedure employed.

What about progress in citizenship and personality development? These may be indicated on a high-school transcript by a composite rating scale representing the opinions of many teachers. In higher education, they may appear indirectly through grading in courses related to this type of objective such as mental hygiene.

THE IMPROVEMENT OF TEACHER ABILITY TO GRADE LEARNERS

The use of a system such as this would require cooperation and skill on the part of teachers. They would have to understand the technology of this type of grading. This means more emphasis in teacher training on evaluation.

Teachers established in the profession should be encouraged to participate in committee activities or in-service training along these lines. In higher education, it might be necessary sometimes to convince each faculty member in one way or another and trust him to acquire the ability to make it work.

Possibly, in time, there would be pressure in the direction of employing office automation in the evaluation and recording processes if not in teaching itself. If this is going to happen, whether this type of system were in force or not would probably make little difference. For the present, the "paper work barrier" might be against the introduction of a more complex system of grading; in spite of a possible objection of this type, the over-all picture appears to justify efforts in the direction of improving grading even if it does make for additional paper work.

THE IMPLICATIONS FOR EVALUATION AND MERIT RATING OF TEACHERS

Prediction and control may be desirable as a goal of science, however, when it comes in individual's in a democracy, the building of a framework on which a strong system of centralized control could be built would in itself be potentially self-defeating. If grading works rather well as is, would the building of this type of system really be worth the risk?

Ours is a day of flirting with danger. If mankind can toy with H bombs and space missiles, it should be able to gain the advantages of efficiency in reporting learner progress without fearing too much the dangers of quality control.

Not only that, if an objective basis for sizing up teaching could be achieved as a by-product of the improvement of methods of reporting progress in schools and colleges, this might be acceptable to the teaching profession as a way of rewarding outstanding performance on the part of teachers.

CONCLUSION

Grading will become increasingly a measure of teacher and learner effectiveness. The improvement of teacher grades will accompany a general improvement in American education. Measurement and evaluation will become an increasingly important topic in teacher training.

The ABC of Grading

JOHN J. HOSMANEK
OTTO F. HUETTNER

LOST in the great maze of educational problems is one which vitally affects numerous of our "gifted" students who find themselves in the increasing enriched, accelerated, and "honors" classes. Simply stated, it is that these students are very frequently penalized for being in such classes when evaluations in the form of grades are made for their records.

In the traditional school where grouping takes place on the basis of ability and achievement, in all or some academic areas, a "top" group is skimmed and placed in more challenging classes. This system has met with success over the years. But, frequently, unless some provisions have been made regarding the grading of these students, they could leave their junior and senior high schools with far better grade-point averages if they had been kept in an ungrouped situation. Judged in contrast to less able, less ambitious, poor-working classmates, they would come out at the top. Judged against students of their caliber, they often appear "second-best."

In the normal ungrouped situation the top students are recognized and "rewarded" appropriately with the top grade. In a grouped situation, these same students are frequently judged in contrast to others of a similar caliber and many receive something less than a top grade. Adding to the injustice of such evaluation is the fact that, almost always, the colleges and other agencies base their awarding of scholarships and even admission, at least in part, on the grade-point average and the rank in class.

The problem does not resolve itself by having ungrouped classes because the students group themselves through the courses they select. In this regard, course requirements for college admission, work to the advantage of the student and, of course, are a partial answer to the problem. However, beyond entrance requirements, the situation again presents itself. What of the multiple advanced courses in mathematics and science currently finding their way into the secondary-school curriculum? Should an able student in great need of a scholarship risk taking an advanced course? Certainly, some solutions to this seemingly dilemmatic predicament have been found by both students and schools.

Some students prefer to take the easy route—concentrating on extraneous goals such as grade-point averages. They avoid the difficult courses unless these are required and thereby insure themselves of top grades. To say this is always the case would be, of course, selling our youth short

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—but, if it happens as frequently as many counselors, administrators, teachers, and parents hear of it, then it happens too often.

Other students in their mad endeavor to acquire a grade point, weaken as the competition grows fierce and sometimes adopt unethical means to achieve their goals. Current literature regarding cheating on examinations supports the existence of this condition. Still other students face the challenges squarely. The most able benefit and do not become overly concerned with grade points. Others face the challenge and conceivably lose the recognition and reward, through scholarships and other honors, which they might have received had they taken less-challenging courses.

Obviously, each school needs to examine its grading and promotion policies. What evaluative criteria have been developed? Do teachers really recognize and compensate for individual differences? Does the school maintain a curriculum of sufficient scope to meet the needs of all students? Is the guidance program effective? Does the staff recognize its responsibility to assist each student in the development of critical thinking ability? These are some of the questions closely allied to this problem of doing effective and equitable grading of students.

Current world conditions indicate that American citizens will need every iota of ability to think clearly, to maintain high moral standards, and to utilize, effectively, the talents of all individuals in our society. Education must meet the challenges of all types of youth. Schools must find equitable measures to recognize ability and achievement.

Many schools have devised at least partially acceptable arrangements, such as weighted grades and restriction of top grades to selected groups. Increasing numbers of colleges are adopting entrance examinations in lieu of frequently arbitrary evaluations. In this era of acceleration and enrichment, considerably more needs to be done to insure a fair evaluation of these students.

A CORRECTION

In the November 1960 issue of *THE BULLETIN*, the article entitled "The Successful Teenage Student—What Made Him That Way?" (pages 39-45) was credited to Bernard G. Kelner, Principal of the Horace Howard Furness Junior High School, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania. This was not a report by one individual, but rather a cooperative project in which the following faculty members of the Furness Junior High School participated in its development: John Dolan, Lillian Russo, John Stevens, Donald Tumini, William Young, and Mr. Kelner. The editor regrets the omission of these names as co-authors of the report.

Decreasing Student and Community Identification with the School

ROBERT R. BELL

CONTEMPORARY American social institutions are characterized by formal and informal structures. The formal is that which is explicitly stated and the informal that which unpremeditatedly emerges and in varying ways affects membership behavior.¹ During the past one hundred years, the school in American society has been characterized by an increasingly complex organizational structure.² The structure consists of formalized norms, statuses, power relationships, and methods of communication. The school system, like other institutions, is becoming increasingly bureaucratic.³ Schools are also characterized by informal patterns of thought and behavior; for example, reputations of particular teachers and students, school prestige symbols, school and community folklore, and other types of informal identifications with the school.⁴

It is the purpose of this article to discuss the loss of some informal elements of many schools and how this affects identification by both students and community served by the school. Loss of informal identification is important to the functioning of any institution, and this is particularly true for schools. Schools identified with both students and community are often more effective because the school has a "personality" and is not merely a collection of status positions and buildings.

Given the changing nature of our society, it is increasingly difficult to maintain informal identification with the school by either students or the community. We would like to examine briefly some important social changes that have led to decreasing identification for the school. Understanding some of the broad sociological changes may contribute to a better grasp of contemporary problems associated with school identification.

The school is one functioning part of a large dynamic society and, while the school contributes to social change, it is far more affected by the over-all changes of the rest of society.⁵ Broad social changes of the past

¹ Young, Kimball. *Social Psychology*. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc. 1956. Pp. 260-264.

² Cf. Brown, Francis J. *Educating Sociology*. New York: Prentice-Hall Inc. 1955, Pp. 296-300.

³ Cf. Havighurst, Robert J. and Bernice L. Neugarten. *Society and Education*. Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc. 1957. Pp. 181-198.

⁴ Cf. Brookover, Wilbur B. *A Sociology of Education*. New York: American Book Co. 1955. Pp. 153-183.

⁵ Havighurst and Neugarten, *op. cit.*, pp. 261-279.

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one hundred years have had great impact on all areas of education. But the impact has usually been recognized and dealt with in the areas of formal change; i.e., curriculum, teaching training, physical plant, etc. There has been much less interest in how these broad social changes have affected the students' and communities' view of the school.

It is probable that the greatest social change in America has been in the area of industrialization. Industrialization has meaning not only for productive changes, but also for basic changes in American living patterns.⁶ We had first the rapid shift from a rural to an urban population and, in recent years, the suburban or metropolitan movement.⁷ The suburban movement has been related to the great increase in birth rate since the end of World War II. This has led to the emergence of living patterns different in many ways from the past. Many communities are characterized by distorted age pyramids (high concentrations of young adults and young children). Because many of the communities are new, the schools are also new. There is limited school identification because time is usually required as an element for the traditions and beliefs of identification to emerge.

It might be argued that, given time, the new communities will create a feeling of identification with their schools. In some cases this will probably happen, but in many it will not. While the community and the school will age and develop continuity, the members of the community probably will not. This is true because of the higher rate of geographical mobility in our society today. A family may live only a few years in a community and move on to another. Geographical mobility is a characteristic of today's middle-class society. This means that both the community and the school are characterized by transient populations.⁸

One of the characteristics of many communities of the past was the historic continuity with the school. Often when a student started high school, the teachers knew his older brothers or sisters or other relatives. The teachers knowing the family was a characteristic of the small town. The student also knew the teachers and the school, because he had been hearing about them for years. A community folklore had emerged that the child grew up with in regard to the school. There was for the student a continuity from the past to the present and on into the future. But for many students today, this is impossible because they may be in a particular school for a few years and then the family moves on.

With transient populations, the community is bound to be affected by decreasing identification. Because of the temporary nature of living in one location, many adults have no interest in the community other than that which has immediate consequences for them. Mobile families often

⁶ Bierstedt, Robert. *The Social Order*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co. 1957. Pp. 509-516.

⁷ *Ibid.*, p. 379.

⁸ Mower, Ernest R., "The Family in Suburbia," in Dobriner, William, *The Suburban Community*. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1958. Pp. 147-163.

view the school in a completely formal and structured fashion. Long-range educational policies have little urgency when their children will be there for only a few years, and they are often interested in the school only so far as obvious and immediate benefits are apparent. The school is often seen within an unemotional and "practical" perspective. (The parent may be very emotional with some immediate child-school problem.)

The teacher also contributes to the decreasing historical perspective built around the school. The number of teachers that stay in the same school for their occupational life is rapidly decreasing because they are also affected by the mobile and dynamic nature of our society and often change jobs.⁹ The teachers occupational movement is also affected by the increasingly complex nature of professional education and, for many, teaching is a means not an end. It may be a means of moving into educational administration and staff functions or leaving education for business or government work.¹⁰ Add to this the fact that many married women in teaching are there for short periods of time. All of these factors contribute to rapid personnel turnover characterizing many metropolitan schools.

High teacher turnover affects both the identification of students as well as the teachers' identification with the school. Students constantly seeing new teachers and administrators are faced with the unstable nature of the school and often feel that they are a part of a transitory institution. This is a far cry from the past when the school was viewed as one of the most stable institutions in the community; stable in both personnel and policy. When the teacher views the school as a temporary working place, this affects her identification. Even the teacher that wants to stay at one school is to some degree psychologically threatened by those teaching there only until they can enter administration or leave for different occupations.

There are other factors contributing to the loss of community and student identification with the school. Many schools, particularly metropolitan ones, are constantly increasing their enrollments. Along with larger enrollments goes an increased bureaucratic structure. And increased size is usually accompanied by decreasing identification, especially for the students. Many high schools have enrollments so large that it is an impossibility for students or teachers to know more than a fraction of the school population. When this happens, the identification can be with only a part of the school membership.

With an increasing percentage of young people going on to college, the high school is increasingly an educational means to an end.¹¹ Attending or graduation from high school no longer has the social prestige that

⁹ Bell, Robert R., "Social Class Values and the Teacher," *The Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, December 1959, p. 122.

¹⁰ Havighurst and Neugarten, *op. cit.*, p. 433.

¹¹ *Ibid.*, pp. 246-247.

it had in the past. Frequently, the identification created with the public schools is lost by a new identification with college. Even those students ending their formal education with high school have an increasingly difficult problem of psychologically identifying with their high school because the school changes so rapidly. With high-school graduation having little prestige value in a society with a high mobility orientation, there will be less status in identifying with high schools.

The loss of identification with high schools is not true of all communities. But with the increase in metropolitan living, the small community with a single school is rapidly on the way out. There are, of course, some rural and small town areas where the high school has great prestige in the community. Often, however, the prestige is around non-academic aspects of education. For example, some small towns in the Mid-west resist school consolidation because they don't want to lose their basketball teams. This may happen when the school is the most important institution in the town.

Educators should increasingly be aware that the loss of identification and prestige with the high school is an inevitable product of complex social change and recognize that this change is a sociological fact. To argue for a return to the "good old days" is sociologically unrealistic. We cannot overlook the fact that all institutions are a part of a complex and dynamic society. Even if it were possible to return to the kind of school characteristics that existed in the past, we would be faced with a highly disfunctional set of social relationships. The school of today is a reflection of the changing values of contemporary society, and the values of today are not the same as fifty years ago.

There is probably little that can be done to create new areas of student and community identification with the school. Where it is possible, it is in areas of formal organization; *i.e.*, where the school is defined as meeting specific practical needs for the community and the students—for example, in adult education and the use of the school for formal activities of the community and for the students in providing facilities for athletic and social activities. It is also possible that the school is no longer needed in the social or community sense as it was in past years. The many formalized outlets that are a part of most communities may now be meeting needs that were met informally by the school in the past. Like the family, formal education has lost many of its informal functions to new and specialized social agencies.

The Navy and School Relations

JOSEPH E. BARBER

BEFORE starting a discussion on school and college relations, it is important to observe that the military services have not always enjoyed the greatest popularity in the eyes of the school administrator. There still exists among some well-meaning and devoted educators a feeling that the military services want to take students out of school and put them into uniform. They have the impression that the military services ends all opportunity for further education although you know that nothing could be further from the truth. Also you know that the military services are becoming more and more a highly complex technical organization. The seaman today has a knowledge of electronics and weapon systems of which the seaman a decade ago knew nothing. For this reason, the United States Navy came to recognize the need to acquaint the educators of the extensive revolution which has taken place in Navy training and to gain their assistance to meet the increased demands for trainable manpower to meet the requirements of the modern Navy. Thus the school relations activities were born.

Some of the activities of the school and college relations program of the Navy are:

A. Advise on materials of a vocational guidance nature which point out careers on the enlisted and officer levels to be used in educational institutions.

B. Responsibility for planning directives, guides, and instructions which aid the local recruiter in his relations with the schools of his area.

C. Coordinate with branches, sections, and units of the Recruiting Division, other divisions of the Bureau of Naval Personnel, the Chief of Information and other bureaus of the Navy on activities involving educational institutions such as aviation and guidance workshops.

D. Attendance at national educational conventions to display Navy exhibits, discuss naval career opportunities with school administrators, guidance counselors, and teachers, as well as to speak at such meetings on careers.

E. Serve in a liaison capacity with the National Education Association, the U.S. Office of Education, and the apprenticeship council of the Department of Labor.

F. Speak at national and state conventions, serve on educational panels, and aid the planning committee for such conventions when requested.

The Navy originated the *stay-in-school* policy a few years ago. Its concepts are now a Department of Defense Instruction and apply to all the Armed Forces. This Department of Defense Instruction states:

A. Students in secondary schools will be encouraged to stay in school and graduate.

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B. Students enrolled in secondary schools will not be accepted for active duty enlistment without prior notice to the school and without the consent of the parents.

C. When desired by local school authorities, joint arrangement for in-school student time will be made by one representative from all the military services represented in the community.

D. Secondary schools will be encouraged and given every assistance in teaching the vocational career opportunities of the Armed Forces at the same time other occupational opportunities are taught in the schools.

E. All contacts with the school authorities soliciting their cooperation will be jointly arranged by the recruiting services to the greatest practical extent.

F. The National Guard, the Air National Guard, and the Coast Guard will be encouraged to participate in this program.

THE HIGH SCHOOL GRADUATE TRAINING PROGRAM

In 1955, when we started our present school relations, there were 8,669 high-school graduates who entered the Navy. During the 1959 calendar year, 30,861 young men, who held their high-school diplomas, entered upon their careers in the Navy. This is an increase of 345 per cent. It is believed that, as Navy careers are emphasized in the schools through the teaching of *occupations* and the graduates learn of the training opportunities, this number of applicants will continue to grow. We have to ascertain how to convince youth of the inherent values of a career in the Navy as well as the opportunities for a college education through the Naval Academy and the Naval Reserve Officers Training Corps.

What About the Naval Academy?

The activities of the Naval Academy have been explained. The school relations staff answers all letters from young men seeking information concerning the Naval Academy. When at annual conventions of teachers, counselors, and administrators, the Academy and its training are stressed. There are many questions asked on requirements for admission, and hundreds of requests for catalogues are answered. In 1955—the year that school relations was started—3,924 young men applied for admission to the Naval Academy. In 1960, there were 5,900 applications; this was an increase of 51 per cent. During these same years, the number of applications at the regular colleges and universities of the United States increased by 21½ per cent.

Now—The College Liaison Officer

Naval Reserve officers on inactive duty, working as instructors or staff members at colleges and universities, often serve the Navy as College Liaison officers when so appointed. They are appointed by and serve under the Commandant of the local district and counsel the procurement officers on the proper people to meet on the staff, advise on the best times to visit the college, and suggest young people who may be interested in a military career. This officer does not do any actual recruiting, but he may advise when the procurement officer is on campus. He has a

limited amount of Navy publicity materials which he may give to individuals if he desires to do so.

Navy guidance materials are given to the high schools and colleges in several ways. It may be delivered to them by the recruiters of the area. Some material is mailed because of the time element. Much material is given out at national conventions or even mailed from the convention itself.

The Navy's *stay-in-school* policy is emphasized on the college level also. The college applicant for the Officer Candidate School must be within three months of obtaining his baccalaureate degree. It has been explained to you that the Naval Aviation Cadet is offered definite incentives if he will complete the requirements for his degree and take his flying training as an Aviation Officer Candidate.

Now a Few Words About National Educational Conventions

The Navy has an educational exhibit at the largest national Educational conventions which are held annually throughout the United States. Here we answer many thousands of questions, discuss curriculum content, map out career patterns in the Navy, and give endless guidance information. There is a Wave Officer present to answer questions on careers for women in the Navy; a regular line officer discusses training for officers with the administrators and teachers, while enlisted personnel assist in answering the wide variety of questions which come from these people who have dedicated their lives to the betterment of youth. We have made many friends. The schoolmen better understand how the Navy material keeps young people in school as well as the education and training which is available to youth through a career in the Navy. During the 1960 calendar year, we have contacted 108,500 schoolmen. These are the people working directly with youth—they man the schools of the nation which is the greatest and best source of manpower for the Navy.

We frequently have prominent Navy people in uniform speak at these conventions. The Navy band has given concerts before the largest organizations, the Naval Academy Glee Club has appeared on several occasions, and the Blue Jackets Choir has sung. Navy participation in these events serves to create a favorable Navy image with these schoolmen friends of the Navy.

Financing with Student Funds

LOUIS J. POWERS

ONE of the greatest problems faced by a high-school administrator is the administration of what is commonly called "Associated Student Body Funds." The popular conception of district monies includes all funds used in the operating of our public schools. Such money is used to purchase the equipment and the supplies as well as to pay the personnel needed to keep the school operating. Public unawareness of the complications involved in keeping public funds separated from non-public (non-district) funds is sometimes alarming to the school administrator who struggles to keep both within their respective boundaries.

The school's athletic program immediately comes to mind when any one of us ponders over such a problem. Even the very small school district must expend sums which seem vast to them in order to support even a modest program of athletics. State laws prohibit the expenditure of monies from the school district's general fund in order to support activities which are labeled "extracurricular." This phase of the school's financial program more than any other is composed of a great variety of related facets. Emerging from the athletic program of any modern high school is one or more of the following school functions (among others too numerous to be included in the space provided in this short article):

Buses—players buses, band buses, rooters' buses

Chaperons—rooters at away games, dances after the game, etc.

Supervisors—ticket supervision, gate patrols

Clubs—Pep club, Letterman's club, etc.

Special Equipment—care and maintenance, custodial care, etc.

ASB Sponsors and Bookkeeper—usually a faculty member and an administrator

Coaching Personnel—heads and assistants

Administration—time put in by principals, superintendents, and athletic director

Insurance Program—complicated and expensive, important part of program

Medical Examinations and Medical Fees

Public funds may not be spent to support these functions. Of course, certain obvious overlappings will occur. Coaches are paid by the district, supervision of teachers is a district responsibility, buses and transportation of the players and rooters are also within the jurisdiction of the district. Some districts pay the driver extra wages to make the trip, and most of them pay for all the transportation expenses.

State laws set certain limitations in order to govern such things, but so few people seem to understand just what they are. We know, for

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example, that a coach is employed as a classroom teacher or a physical education instructor, but how much of his pay (school district money) is allowed to go toward after-school sports which benefit only those thirty boys under his direct jurisdiction. If there are no limitations, then obvious discrepancies begin to appear. The district which can afford to pay a thousand dollars additional in wages to the instructor for his coaching endeavors is in a much better bargaining position when it comes to choosing a top-quality coach. The team which represents the school paying only half as much probably attracts only mediocre coaches. But this sort of things is not new to any of us, since we recognize this and other more obvious inequities from one district to the next. The question, however, is not whether or not the fellow who can afford to pay more should get better quality, but rather how much more, if any, should the other fellow be allowed to pay from public funds to support the interest of a limited number. Should not this extra pay be financed by the "Associated Student Body" within the high school which is benefited?

Imagine the dilemma which is faced by some of our high-school people where enrollments run from 100 to 250 who feel an obligation to start a \$12,000 project such as lighting an athletic field. The total revenue taken in during the school year will amount to less than \$1,700. From this amount, the expenses paid out for football uniforms and equipment, basketball and equipment, baseball, track, *etc.*, plus travel expenses, payments for officials, league fees, and trophy fees leave very little for paying off any kind of debt. The athletic department, to be sure, takes the lion's share of the student funds. But let us add to this the non-athletic fees, which actually don't amount to as much as they probably should. Included in this area are such things as student council expenses, awards to top scholars and citizens, activity letters, national assembly programs, and other special functions and special projects chosen by the student.

CASE IN POINT

Within a small high school in Central Washington, it was decided to distribute student handbooks. The estimated cost was slightly less than one-hundred dollars. It was thought best to charge a nominal sum for each and to take a slight loss; the cost per student would be such that any one of them would be willing to purchase the booklet. In the small school, financial losses must be avoided if the ASB is to continue on a solvent basis.

Any school person knows that he cannot expect the district to shoulder the burden of all the expenses in a high school. Certainly, districts do differ in ability to pay; when this is found to be true of a particular district, that district should make an effort (if allowed to do so by state law) to assist with that phase of the school's program. It has been suggested that school districts should pay for the student's activity card. Such "well-to-do" districts could easily foot the bill for student handbooks.

Clearly, if our expressed philosophy of equal opportunity in American education really means anything, it behooves us to accept, as a fundamental responsibility of any district with ability to do so, the purchase of activity cards, athletic insurance, and other such costs for students.

FINANCIAL DILEMMA

A common dilemma shared by a number of smaller high-school administrators and athletic directors is the problem of purchasing lights for a football field. A lighted field will cost from \$12,000 to \$20,000 of either the public or private (donation—individual or organization) money. Most educators feel that we can justify this great expense on the basis of some of the following facts: The public may use public recreation facilities and may enjoy watching students; it supplies aesthetic value to students; it helps to build student morale; it eases scheduling of athletic contests; it helps to build financial support of the ASB; and it increases citizen interest in public education.

The writer believes that the best factor for justifying the expense is the *elimination of interruptions in the academic program* five to six days each year during the football season and at least that many days during baseball and track season. Football games played at home on Friday afternoon constitutes a complete loss academically for as many as forty per cent of the students and up to fifty per cent for the other sixty per cent. We include players, coaches, band directors, administrators, teacher advisers, etc. One such day amounts to roughly 140 student days lost in academic work in a school of 200 students. Projecting this into a school where the enrollments are larger, the totals will run much higher. Add baseball and track disruptions and the total will be 1,680 student days of academic school work lost in the small school. Football alone will cost 700 student days of such academic study time. This, indeed, seems to be worth the cost of lights for a football field when it means that all athletic contests will take place at night and will not interfere with the regular academic school day.

ASB funds cannot be raised to repay any loan of the amount required to install the needed equipment for a lighted field; more especially is this true when interest on the loan is included. Philanthropic community organizations or individuals sometimes donate the amount needed. Fortunately, indeed, is the school receiving such a generous donation. Within certain states, it is permissible to make such a purchase from district funds. This, too, will solve the problem for the small high school, even though it may take a number of years for a poor district to save that much money from a rather limited general fund. Since very few small high schools are favored by a generous contributing organization or individual or state law, their officials often face a continuing dilemma in attempting to obtain lights for the athletic field.

SUMMARY

Financing is always a trying experience when dealing with the public funds in any high school which maintains an expensive, and sometimes over-extensive athletic program. As much as possible, purchases are made under the heading of *physical education equipment* in order to help with purchasing expensive equipment often too expensive to be purchased by ASB funds alone. We are continually raked over the coals by the public because of our emphasis on the raising of funds for the ASB; perhaps this is a just criticism. The solutions to the problem offered are numerous and varied: "Cut the size of the athletic program"; "Cut the athletic program out altogether"; "Change the state law so that the district can assist the high school with its expense in supporting the athletic program."

We know that there are some values in the athletic programs; otherwise, they wouldn't have existed for these many years. We know, too, that the traditions in athletics within the small high school are in-grown so deeply that some consider them almost sacred. We know very well that state laws have placed certain restrictions on the way the school officials can spend public funds. Perhaps these restrictions prevent these officials from creating district debts which are to be avoided. State legislators realize that school people may overlook important educational needs common to all the students in their enthusiasm to help solve a financial problem within their ASB.

It would be advisable to let more patrons know about the complexity of financing with district and student monies. Few know the difference. More public support could be gained for our high-schools' programs if we could better inform a larger portion of those who contribute a share of the financial support to the schools. Further, it would seem to be the responsibility of each of us who work within the broad framework of public education to see to it that our financial supporters become supporters of the programs which they finance.

Why Geography?

CARL G. F. FRANZEN

I DON'T care what grade I was in when I attended elementary school, because, whatever grade it was, I just didn't like the geography lesson. Of course, that was a long time ago, and my memory may be at fault when it recalls to me that the subject was so remote from anything that

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was meaningful to me that all I did was to memorize what was in that large geography textbook and give it back to the teacher when lesson time came. I studied about deltas, volcanic eruptions, mountain ranges, harbors, isthmuses, archipelagos, rivers, capes, *etc., etc.*, but very little about people. In the town where I lived there was a river, but I saw no volcanoes, no isthmuses, no deserts, and no capes. Oh! There might be pictures of these in the geography text, but they were usually small and somewhat faint. When we came to the study of rocks, there were no samples of rocks in the room to look at.

And then there were imports and exports, supposedly portraying the economic aspects of the lives of the people who lived in whatever country we were studying at the time. Somehow or other I could never get fascinated over what it was that people in one part of the world raised or produced that was especially characteristic of them.

Well, I left my study of geography in the elementary school. In high school I had a one-semester course in ancient history and that was all. But in the course I did learn a lot about the geography of Greece and Italy because constant reference was made to the maps in the books and in the classrooms. Any geography I learned in college was obtained in similar fashion—from books and special maps.

My next contact with geography was in a fifth-grade class taught by Miss Maud McBroom in the University of Iowa demonstration school. I shall never forget my amazement when I visited her class in its lessons on geography of South America. Seldom had I seen such activity and enthusiasm as were found in that class. The youngsters were studying about people, where they lived, what kind of country it was, what kind they were, what they did, how they lived, what were their social and economic relations with their neighbors and with the rest of the world. Those youngsters treated their subject as if it meant something personally to each one of them. They even had a boy from Colombia talk with them and answer their questions. I conceived a different idea of what a study of geography might do to enlarge one's vision of this globe of ours.

Then came the time when I began to tell undergraduate and graduate students what should go into the secondary-school curriculum. A secondary-school student's schedule was so filled with the subjects he had to take in order to be graduated and still have time for a satisfactory amount of electives that I reasoned there was no chance to require a course in political and economic geography. With others of my group I reasoned that any such necessary information could well be supplied and acquired in the regular history classes.

Then, as a supervisor of student teachers, I began to visit classes on the secondary-school level, grades seven through twelve. Geography as such was not taught in any of them. The only social studies courses required were in American and state history. If a course in world history was offered, it was elective. This meant that most of the boys and girls in grades seven through twelve were not required to come in contact with

what was going on in the rest of the world. But that wasn't all. Time after time I would visit a history class when not a single map was referred to, when no new places were located, and when the youngsters couldn't even spell or pronounce new names. I have even seen wrong maps referred to because the right one wasn't available. The result was that gradually I began to lose faith in my theory that geography could be taught as an adjunct to history.

Then came the months that I spent after World War II working with the secondary schools in Bremen, Germany. Now there may be special reasons for my seeing what I saw, because Bremen is as cosmopolitan a city as you will find anywhere on this earth. Its people have traveled all over the world. Many of them speak more than two languages besides German. But, whatever the reasons, I saw separate classes in geography that made me think twice about my old theory of combining geography and history.

Now this combination business, you must realize, is a pet theory of the so-called integrationists or core-curriculum advocates. Their philosophy, as I understand it, is that, in life, we do not do what we do as isolated elements of a particular subject, but that our activities are a composite. I quote from the 1950 edition of the *Evaluative Criteria*. "The core program consists of those instructional activities, usually grouped in a single course, which are designed to meet important common educational needs of secondary-school pupils. Emphasis in the program is upon the study of common life problems of youth and society. Because of flexibility in organization and content, teacher and pupils are free to disregard the customary subject-matter boundaries in seeking solutions to these problems."¹

Nothing could be more obvious, could it, than that subject matter boundaries should be disregarded whenever the problem or project deals with materials from more than one field? How natural, then, it is to suggest that language arts and social studies be combined so that the student is not aware of them as separate disciplines. An ensuing corollary is that geography enters the picture only when the topic under discussion demands its inclusion. Such a type of inclusion is an illustration of what some of us call incidental learning; viz., that a subject is never studied as a subject by itself but that those parts of it that fit into whatever is being studied are brought in, one at a time. The extreme position taken by those who advocate the core curriculum is that arithmetic and spelling should be taught this way.

I must confess that, for a while, I followed along this path, more or less, myself. Then, it came to me, as I observed class after class, that youngsters were not acquiring the knowledges and skills that society seemed to expect

¹ *Evaluative Criteria*, 1950 Edition, Cooperative Study of Secondary School Standards, Washington, D. C., p. 57. Now known as the National Study of Secondary School Evaluation, 1785 Massachusetts Avenue, N.W., Washington 6, D. C.

of them. When World War II came along, there were hundreds of thousands of us who didn't know anything about the countries which were involved in the struggle. They didn't know where to find them on the map, they didn't know the names of the chief cities, they didn't know what language was spoken, they knew nothing about the national history and culture.

And so, when I saw these geography classes in the Bremen secondary schools, when I saw the profusion of marvelous maps that had survived the destruction of war in some schools, when I saw the knowledge displayed by the youngsters, not to mention the skill used by the teachers in teaching the subject, I returned to the States with a different attitude toward the place of geography in the secondary-school curriculum. In fact, I began to realize that "We must face the fact that we do live in a subject centered world. No matter in what activity we engage, we refer to its components as grammar, chemistry, mathematics, geography, political science, *etc.*, *etc.* All the work of the world—philosophical, academic, technical, scientific—is carried on *via* the instruments of the many subject fields. To discount the importance and place of subject fields in this day and age is as silly as to say that the moon is made of green cheese."²

In other words, geography, as brought in incidentally in history classes, especially when most secondary-school students never were exposed to courses in world history, was not doing the job of acquainting our future citizens with the rest of the world. It is almost superfluous to mention here the impact upon our social, political, and economic relations of the jet age. Everybody seems to be talking about the impact upon our ways of living and thinking of electronics and automation. Expansion is being made in the areas of mathematics, science, and foreign languages. What I want to see is an expansion in the area of geography.

Now I realize that you can lead a student to the classroom, but you can't *make* him think. We can require students to take certain courses, but that doesn't necessarily mean that they will get out of these courses what we want them to. Nevertheless, there are some things so fundamental, at least they seem so to us—like counting, writing, spelling, reading, knowing something of what has made us what we are, both socially and scientifically—that we require all secondary-school boys and girls to study them. Now we know that they profit in various degrees from what they study. Some get a great deal, others only a little. And yet all have been exposed, and all have something more than when they started out.

And so it is with geography. To be effective, to make our people more intelligent about their neighbors near and far, to remove the boorishness of isolationism, boys and girls must have a chance to learn what the world is like. They are *not* getting this information from the incidental treatment of geography in history classes.

² Franzen, Carl G. F. *Foundations of Secondary Education*. New York: Harper and Brothers. 1955. P. 289.

What's the solution? *First*, let me say that we are getting away from the "four solids" idea of a student's program. Many boys and girls are today carrying five and even six subjects a day, and they are passing these courses creditably. *Second*, in many, many secondary schools no social studies course is required in the ninth grade. And *third*, films and filmstrips can now bring the farthestmost ends of the earth right into the classroom so that we can see, even if we can't feel, what's going on elsewhere.

We used to have civics and occupational information, but they have sort of faded out of the picture. So you can see what my suggestion is going to be. And here it is. Require of all ninth-grade students a full-year course in global geography, a course in which emphasis is first placed upon people and next upon what it is that they do which will help us to understand them better. I know that not every student will profit equally from being subjected to such a regimen, but I also know that we will be closer to a one world idea if we do.

A Tale of Two Workshops

JANE ELLEN McALLISTER

SO CLOSE in spirit and procedure were the two 1960 summer workshops at Jackson State College that they were like the two faces of a coin, and the complete story of one will be impossible without mention of the other. On one side of the coin was the three-weeks workshop for 36 principals and assistant principals of 36 schools embracing both elementary and secondary grades—some of the newly consolidated schools of Mississippi; on the other side was the College-Readiness Program or Workshop for 31 academically talented and potentially able high-school graduates, some from the aforementioned schools. The two workshops had the same instructor; the one for high-school graduates followed closely upon the heels of the one for principals; both were marked by a variety of techniques and flexible methods of procedure; the high-school graduates in five study groups of six persons each, and on the bulletin board, in recreation, and in steering committees solved the practical problems of group effort in attaining the objectives of their workshop as enthusiastically as had the principals in similarly organized special-interest groups and committees in the previously held workshop.

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The closeness of relationship of the two workshops however lay in none of the preceding factors though all were contributory. Rather it lay mainly in the high-school graduates of the second workshop, for they and their kind were a symbol of all pupils for whom administrators and schools existed. They were principals' workshop's real reason for being. Since some of them were actually pupils of the schools administered by the principals in the first workshop, they symbolized all the more clearly to the 36 principals *the end* for which they as administrators, the buildings they administered, and the faculties they guided were only the means.

Consequently, if the principals succeeded in the workshop aims, later graduates symbolized by the present participants in the College-Readiness Workshop, would leave Mississippi schools a little more systematically instructed in the cultural heritage; a little better developed in intellectual competence and with increased humanity and spiritual stature.

In other words, the closeness of the two workshops lay in the fact that the College Readiness Program became part of the motivation of the principals' Workshop. Under such circumstances it constituted a professional laboratory experience for each principal. Principals during their workshop period surveyed and evaluated material to be used later by the College Readiness group; namely, slide films, records, and reading material from great authors in natural sciences, social sciences, and humanities. So great was the interest created by these means that some principals even returned to the campus to visit the pre-college or Readiness workshop and watch their students in action. Later all of the Workshop principals were sent final reports of the College Readiness Program and all were informed of what, in the student's opinion, might have been done for him in his respective high school to increase his readiness for college.

Regardless of the youth of the young people in the College Readiness group or the age of those in the Principals group—for both workshops demonstrated that age is really a quality of mind, the social environment, including political, educational factors, and intellectual orientations, affected alike the spirit of the two workshops. During a difficult and exciting summer, nothing could have insulated either workshop against the bombardment of news on nationalistic attempts in Africa, on the Civil Rights battle, the aftermath of sit-down strikes; on Kefauver with liberal views winning by a great majority in Tennessee and Faubus with directly opposite views winning in Arkansas. As a result, workshop pre-college students and principals grew more and more interested in becoming politically wise. To them politics was no longer a dirty word. They wanted to examine the workings of national and local government, as well as relationships between nations, and the influence of political parties. Because of this interest they communicated with both presidential nominees with the Jackson State College student-sponsored forum. The educational factors affecting the spirit of the Workshops was more

apparent in an editorial—*A Shame and a Disgrace* by Benjamin Mayes, President of Morehouse College in which he says "A group of us was discussing the academic performance of Negro students. After considerable discussion we had to come to the conclusion that by and large, the Negro student is not concerned with the pursuit of academic excellence. For some reason, the vast majority of Negro students have not been motivated to the point where they are willing to apply themselves to do their best in elementary and secondary schools and in college." The educational factors affecting the workshop were also uppermost when participants of both workshops discussed Gallup's statement: "Persons who read more write better, speak better, teach better and know more. . . . Time was when a student who demonstrated a moderate interest in his work and spent a reasonable amount of time in study could be fairly certain of getting a bachelor-of-arts degree. But those happy-go-lucky days are gone forever. . . . To keep one's grades at a high enough level to stay in college and to qualify for a degree requires a high order of scholastic ability." Discussions of such events and ideas as the preceding could not fail to affect the spirit of both workshops.

Although the spirit of both workshops soared above problems of finance, they had nevertheless a financial side. The Southern Education Foundation sponsored the workshop for principals with scholarships allocated to principals who had not only special problems of consolidation but also a specially strong motive for interest in solving them. The College Readiness Program had applied for grants to several foundations but when for various reasons no foundation gave help, the college scraped together money for expenses through its scholarship fund, and students borrowed further from the U.S. Government loan fund, the latter mainly because time spent in the College Readiness Program was time taken from jobs which would have meant to them books and clothes for the coming college year. Both workshops had access to a well-equipped library but in the Principals' Workshop each person purchased for his use and the use of his teachers back home the following books which he had found of greatest value: DeYoungs' *American Education*; Klausmeier's *The Elementary School*; *The Evaluative Criteria*, by Boston University Research Department; and *The Evaluative Criteria*, by the Southern Association. More than that, the principals for their cultural enrichment in social sciences, humanities, natural sciences, had access to the books for the College Readiness Workshop which included not only all the well-known Torch series of classics published by Harpers Publishing Company, but individual copies of books containing the works of great authors; such as, Huxley, Arnold, Emerson, Cervantes, Thoreau, and countless others; all of whose books had been purchased through the kindness of a well-known industrialist. They had access to the College-Readiness-Workshop audio-visual equipment given by the Phelps Stokes Foundation, and including tape recordings of famous lectures, educational records, silent films, and filmstrips.

Although the two workshops were very close and had much in common, yet there were enough elements, unique to each to justify separate descriptions.

THE PRINCIPALS' WORKSHOP

The men and women of the workshop—even more than the social environment whose realities inevitably affected it—gave the workshop its spirit and characteristics. Principals were in the workshop from Lula Junior High School in Lula, from Miller Elementary School in Silver Creek, from Noxapater High School in Noxapater, from Sand Flat Junior High School at Mt. Pleasant, and many other towns and many other schools. When the principals pooled their school enrollments, they discovered that represented in that workshop through their principals were approximately 22,000 children, 450 teachers, and 281 small communities, and it was for these teachers, children, and communities that the principals were attending the workshop. Some principals had masters degrees from Indiana University, Northwestern University, Tennessee State A & I University, Alabama State College, and Tuskegee Institute; all others had bachelor's degree. They had come not to get more theory of which they had amassed course after course, but to learn how to put the theory they already had into the building of a more effective and efficient school; or as one principal put it, "to learn how to use at least one third or more of what we already know if it will improve our situation."

They were eager, dedicated, ambitious men and women confused by many problems, some without the wisdom, foresight, and means to anticipate and solve problems before they were overwhelmed by them. Facing the principals not only were problems confronting education all over the U.S.—such as, the soul-searching to find whether the school should be pushed back to a traditional so-called primary role, or whether it could perform that primary role better by feeding into it other activities and responsibilities—but also the immediate and, for many, tremendous problem of making one particular school in a small or moderately sized Mississippi town good enough, beginning in September 1960, to accomplish all that it must. Many of the principals had teachers new in their buildings; teachers formerly in two- or three-teacher schools where in order to survive, of necessity they had functioned as absolute rather primitive dictators. As these teachers became one of a team of 15 or 20, the principal had to help them hold on only to the personality traits—of which there were many—from the old which would serve well in the new and more complicated situation. Many of the principals too faced the problem of seven hundred or more pupils in a combined elementary and high school—pupils who had formerly been members of a comparatively small group made up entirely of neighbors. In addition the principals had the problem presented by parents, whose schools had formerly been as indigenous to the community as were their little churches, having to make friends with "outsiders" and what they perceived as a "huge school."

Some principals indeed were in schools which, by the process of school consolidation, represented as many as 25 small communities that eyed each other clannishly and suspiciously. These principals had to build an over-all loyalty to the new school and a school spirit in pupils and parents to whom the small schools of their respective community, though inadequate, had been many things to most people. In a number of cases, the principal had still another problem; namely, that he himself had been catapulted into the administration of a comparatively large school from the teaching principalship of a three or four-teacher school. Without previous experience in management and organization, not only was he hurled into the management of a school, but also into the organization of a bus-transportation system which must fit ten or twelve bus schedules with a daily school class schedule. In contrast to the aforementioned or preceding immediate problems, the principal was faced by the general problems of mass education *versus* the pursuit of excellence, and by the problem of cultural enrichment, and lack of pupil and parent motivation which accounted, to some extent, for the low ADA or average daily attendance of the school.

In like manner, as the men and women themselves made the workshop, so did the purposes which guided the principals during the three weeks give the workshop its spirit and characteristics. The first decision of the workshop participants was that each principal should work to have this experience improve him as a person, for only in so doing could he succeed in encouraging his teachers in September and the following months to improve themselves as persons; and each principal subscribed whole-heartedly to the belief that the most "important gift a school has is not books or buildings, but teachers." As a consequence, each principal began through his special interest group and through the committees on public relations, steering, and recreation to improve his social adaptability, adequacy, and viewpoints. Each had a very keen sense of what his community expected of him in leadership and moral values and he wanted to live up to that expectancy. In addition, he wanted the workshop to help him be the person that was needed for his school, not only in human-relations skills with pupils, teachers, and community people, but also in his intellectual qualifications, his usage of language, and his improvement in the art of communication. In breaking down intellectual growth, the principals said they expected the workshop experiences to fan intellectual curiosity, to increase ability to reflect and act—when desirable and wise—firmly and decisively on his reflections. Likewise, each principal expected to get experience which would increase his independence in figuring out for himself and his school and community situation means of carrying out all the fitting theory he had previously had on running a school.

Each principal also reflected and acted according to his individual ability on the workshop purposes he had set up for developing himself as a person. For instance, as has been said, he looked over the materials that would be used for the next five weeks by the 31 academically talented

students from his own and other high schools such as writings by Emerson, Walt Whitman, Ling Yutang, Cervantes, Huxley, Arnold and others. To the 800 summer teachers in chapel as a conclusion to a year's Public Affairs Forum Series, the principals presented on tape a panel discussion by Muna Lee, Chief of the South American Division in the Bureau of Inter-American Affairs, United State Department of State; Mr. George V. Allen, Director of the United States Information Agency; Dr. Gerald W. Johnson, Associate Director of the Lawrence Radiation Laboratory at the University of California; and Dr. Joseph L. Fisher, President and Executive Director of Resource for the Future, Incorporated. Then the principals familiarized themselves with the field of each of the preceding speakers to be able to answer questions from the floor. Later they presented Armstrong and Prudential Insurance Television films, which would be used in the coming College Readiness Workshop, to the campus teachers for their own cultural enrichment as well as for practice in college-community leadership. The principals also made cultural enrichment a part of their feeling and thinking, and left as a bequest for the coming workshop of students inspiring quotations, among them the following from Don Quixote: "To dream the impossible dream, to fight the unbeatable foe, and never to stop dreaming or fighting—this is man's privilege and the only life worth living." That the aspirations and courage aroused from this quotation paid off was evident by a letter from a principal whose school situation seemed to lack everything, even to the daily attendance of the pupils, that would make it educative. This principal in his letter said that under the influence of the quotation he had asked for and obtained two more buses and two teachers.

The spirit of the workshop is reflected not only in each principal's expectations of the workshop in the way of his *personal development* but also in the way of his *professional growth*. For instance, a special-interest group drew up a statement saying "In the role of a principal, each principal must make regular visits to guide and appraise the work of each teacher in his school; each must provide help with coming faculty meetings; each must interpret vital information to the teacher; each must work effectively and cooperatively with school personnel from the superintendent and teachers down to bus drivers, janitors, and lunchroom workers. "How will the workshop give us practice in these activities?" was the question of each principal.

Practice in each of the aspects of a principal's role was, within a three-weeks workshop, difficult to give. The principals were told, however, that, in the regular graduate program for educating principals, Jackson State College proposes to give each principal a period of apprenticeship under an excellent principal in a good school. Just as—in undergraduate work—the College has offered practice work for student-teachers, so it would offer realistic practical work for student-principals. In the workshop, principals practiced organizing as they would do later with groups in their respective schools. The principals said that they wanted

direct experiences with organizing teachers as teams for a program of long-term-school evaluation, improvement, and possible accreditation. Their chief interest was to stimulate teachers and all other personnel to work stubbornly, vigorously and insistently for excellence in every grade in the school and throughout the community.

Having in mind this preceding wish, the entire workshop group decided that the best way to build up morale in Mississippi schools was to have each faculty engage in solving practical, though long-term, problems of accreditation by the State Department of Education and eventually by the regional agency. They thought that, with teachers organized according to simplified versions of the *Evaluative Criteria* of the Southern Association and the *Evaluative Criteria* of Boston University Research Department, each teacher could do something towards the achievement of excellence in his particular grade whether first or twelfth.

At the end of the workshop, the participants summarized briefly the worth of each phase of the workshop. Of the general session meetings they said, "The meetings gave direct experiences with means of reaching standards of excellence within the reach of each person, grade, and child; with means of cultural enrichment in humanities, social science, and contemporary affairs; with effective use of textbooks and curriculum materials to help in achieving excellence, and with specialized and individualized instruction in using audio-visual equipment. The general session of the workshop also gave experiences in providing for individual differences; gave practice in various aspects of the principal's role; and provided concrete work in the case method, in case histories, and in case studies."

Of the special-interest groups, the principals said, "They provided practice (1) in organizing and working in teams to improve a school within a framework of evaluative criteria; (2) in helping each other solve individual problems of their respective school by exchanging ideas on step-by-step procedures; (3) in actual work in leadership as groups carried out such projects as panel discussions and moving pictures for the cultural enrichment of the campus community of 800 teachers; and (4) in actual intervisitation with principals in the city of Jackson who were successfully administering elementary and secondary schools."

Of work with the committees (social, public relations, library bulletin board, steering, and audio-visual), the principals said, "They provided further practice (1) in associating and working with a variety of personalities in as great a variety of situations as possible; (2) in accepting and discharging obligations and responsibilities and taking the initiative; (3) in relaxing mentally and physically through enjoyable intellectual pursuits; and (4) in developing qualities which make a good person, who is well liked and respected by all."

The best summary of the principals' reaction to the spirit of the workshop is given in following first-person statements from various principals:

A principal in one of the Delta counties had this to say, "All of us have the heart to do. We showed that in various ways; for instance, in the singing of *Done made my vow to the Lord, and I never will turn back; I will go; I must go to see what the end will be*. The question now isn't so much whether we have the heart as whether we have the imagination, and knowledge of what to do and the will to do it. We need less heart and more will. We are pragmatic school people and a lot of things this coming year must be played by ear."

A principal from the Coast said, "We leave the workshop with a heart-felt spirit of commitment to the cause of better schools which will in the future produce students who are even more ready for college than those who will come to the College Readiness Workshop next week."

Another from the hill section of Mississippi added, "We will fight to put into effect the workshop principles; we will not merely mouth them as we have done previously. Already we know how to make real the dormant aspirations of the best of the communities which have combined to make up the one consolidated schools."

THE COLLEGE READINESS WORKSHOP

With a heritage from the principals' workshop of inspiring quotations; carefully surveyed books for cultural enrichment in social science, humanities, and contemporary affairs; New York news films; and with best wishes from the outgoing principals that the College Readiness participants acquire not only further cultural heritage and intellectual competence but more qualities of humanity and a further measure of spiritual stature, the academically talented high-school graduates for the College Readiness Program came to the College immediately after the principals left. Even before their arrival, they had symbolized for the principals' workshop the type of human resources that their schools were dedicated to produce, and, therefore, before their arrival and after, as has been said, they constituted for the principals' workshop a professional laboratory experience. Indeed, before the high-school graduates had been in the workshop a week, two principals had already visited the College Readiness Workshop to observe students from their respective schools.

It was true with the second workshop as with the first that it is impossible to understand the workshop without understanding the people who created it and lived it for five weeks. The young people came from well-known cities and towns like Jackson, the capitol of Mississippi, Vicksburg, Meridian, and Greenville. They came also from small towns and rural sections; for instance, from Lincoln County Training School at Bogue Chitto, from McCullough High School in New Hebron, from Turner Chapel in Polkville, from Montgomery High School in Louise, from G. W. Carver High School in Picayune, and Addison High School in Hermansville—the smaller schools and towns which may not be known even to all Mississippians. Participants came from both the consolidated schools and from the million-dollar city schools.

They were the valedictorians and salutatorians of their respective high schools; and yet on a nationwide College Entrance only *one* tested at the 80th to 85th percentile in all four fields, Natural Science, Social Science, Mathematics, and English. Another one reached the 92nd percentile in Social Science, but 40th and 50th in the other fields; and several tested below the 20th percentile in all fields. They had potential ability, but, because of lack of parental or community regard for intellectual attainment and lack of opportunities for varied cultural experience, they were poor on achievement tests. They themselves recognized that they failed to make national norm, and they were so anxious to improve that they came to class at any and all hours. Each of them had been selected for the workshop after being tested, after being recommended by the principal, and after having submitted an autobiographical sketch in which the faculty staff saw the self-image each student had and thus be able to tell whether the image the student held of himself was similar to that held of him by others.

It was surprising to note the ability, motivation, and perceptiveness of the participants after seeing so many in former years who suffered with academic apathy because of, as has been said, the lack of parental or community regard for intellectual attainment, and the lack of opportunities for varied cultural experiences. The spirit of this workshop of young people shows up in the following composite student-committee statement on what readiness for college means. It was made after the committee members had read widely for a week.

Readiness for college is more than fifteen units of highly satisfactory high-school work; it is even more than systematic knowledge and accurate information, as important as they are. It is intellectual curiosity, a spirit of inquiry, a driving purpose, and attitudes promoting devotion to things of the mind; it is the know-how "in embryo" of making a true university from a collection of books "some of which come to life in your heart and are your dear friends," it is the acceptance with enthusiasm of a life of social and mental discipline rather than personal comfort and amusement; it is a gradual independence of instructors; an independence which the student achieves by himself and for himself as he develops his powers; it is a combination of reflection, constructive thinking, and action; it is the ability to keep with perfect sweetness the independence of solitude in the midst of a crowd, the courage to hear a different drummer and step to that music; and finally it is the knowledge that every student has a right to his own opinion, but no student has a right to be wrong in his facts.

The workshop spirit and characteristics are indicated further in the following beliefs upon which the students agreed: (1) systematic instruction by means of reading-thinking skills in the cultural heritage and in intellectual competence are the primary tasks of the Pre-College Readiness Workshop and Inter-College Readiness Program; (2) thinking, study, and other means of disciplining the mind are hard and often unpleasant tasks which require a "courage that cannot be taught and can only be dared and redirected"; (3) reading, listening, thinking, observing, writing

and speaking must be learned simultaneously in a concerted attack by the student himself on all fronts.

The students used a variety of means to carry out their preceding beliefs. These beliefs were made a part of themselves and used as a foundation for liberal enrichment and habits of critical thinking, writings by great authors such as writings grouped by areas of living such as work, home, marriage, sports, danger, education; writings grouped also by subject fields such as social science, science, English; and writings grouped under topical groupings starting with the student's interest in himself and his immediate problems such as "Setting Your Course" and "Sharpening Your Tools" and then going on to "The Role of Education," "Words and Their Ways," and "Thinking to a Purpose." They read for relaxation, as well as for information, articles from magazines such as *The American Mercury*, *The Reporter*, the *Atlantic Monthly*, and *Harpers*. Through this variety of reading, the College Readiness participants increased their understanding of the physical world and of man's relations to it; they began to develop a code of ethics and philosophy, and they recognized the dignity and human worth of each person.

No longer were students attacking work with "obedient purposelessness." There were developing a strategy of study. Not only did they work persistently on their weak points after these points were revealed by tests in reading, punctuation, listening comprehension, vocabulary, but they also strove for skill in written expression as a corollary of reading by correcting the errors in sentence structure in compositions written by college students in the University of Chicago and other colleges. Furthermore, they worked hard to become both better read and better informed as they worked on developing speed and comprehension, in addition to increasing their love for reading, not only by means of fourteen reading films but also by a film on *The Humanities*. And what is even more interesting, the students began the development of courage and the justified self-confidence necessary for reading and communication through activities in leadership such as showing and discussing, with the College community for its cultural enrichment, the Prudential TV films—including *The Fall of China*, *The Delinquents*—and the Armstrong Circle TV Films—including *Hypnosis*, *Amnesia*, *The Second Chance*, *Four Homes for Danny*, *Accused of Murder*, and *Man in the Shadow*. Along with these activities, the students organized and managed themselves in study, recreation, and work by means of special study groups made up of a student chairman and six other students who debated points and lived by the slogan: "Each One, Teach One." In like manner, they organized committees—steering committee, library committee, recreation committee, audio-visual committee, and public relations—to carry on all the organizational activities of the class. To instructors engaged in college projects which caught the interest of workshop students, they served as apprentices and as partners in an intellectual and educational enterprise.

The following activities in self-analysis and self-appraisal of personality make-up perhaps contributed most to the courage and self-confidence of each student. Each student checked needed improvements in appearance; in voice and in speech-in-audience situations; in attitudes toward others; in outlook on life; in spiritual orientation, in mental health, and in poise according to a scale by Haskew. Following this, each student, after checking himself, noted experiences in the College Reading Workshop which would help him grow; each noted independent activities and individualized offerings which he would use on his own to correct defects, and each student strove with help of the instructor to see how to release the springs of energy, devotion, and motivation in himself necessary to achieve excellence in college and life.

"The end is not yet" said a principal who was present as the College Readiness Workshop ended. Although he spoke lightly, the remark might well have been a serious one; for should either workshop end this summer, it has failed. And so a tale is told of two workshops which are like the two faces of a coin. On one side is the College Readiness Workshop which is the *why* of the Principals Workshop. On the other side is the Principals Workshop which is the *how*; for the Principals Workshop had one purpose; namely, to show how principals may help teachers see that young people, as symbolized by those in the College Readiness Workshop, attain the excellence that can be given in any grade by excellent rather than shoddy and slovenly work. In thus planning to shake off the intellectual apathy of the participants in the College Readiness Program, the principals found that they were shaking off their own intellectual apathy. All agreed with a workshop participant who quoted, "A workshop is like a book; it is not so much the thought which it contains that is important, but the thought which it arouses." In each principal and each pre-college student the workshop aroused thought which is a necessary preface to all action for revolutionizing schools and education in Mississippi.

The Book Column

Professional Books

BOWER, E. M.; F. A. SHELLHAMMER; J. A. DAILY; MURRAY BOWER; and DANIEL BLAIN. *High-School Students Who Later Become Schizophrenic*. Sacramento, California: State Department of Education. 1960. 165 pp. This study was devoted to exploring the backgrounds of former students of California high schools who at the time of the study were patients in a veterans hospital for mental illness. The exploration was, however, limited to the patients' high-school records of academic achievement and to the behavior characteristics they displayed as high-school students. The purpose of the study was to find, if possible, in the patients' high-school backgrounds anything that might have been symptomatic of oncoming mental illness. The facts presented can be of great interest and assistance to school administrators, guidance counselors, and teachers in the high schools, as well as to psychiatrists, psychologists, social workers, and public health personnel as they attempt to assist the schools to deal in practical ways with the problems involved in educating all children and youth so that they may enjoy a full measure of healthful living.

BURCH, GLEN. *Accent on Learning*. Chicago 3: The American Foundation for Continuing Education, 19 South LaSalle Street. 1960. 152 pp. This is an account of an experiment in adult liberal learning which the author directed from 1951 to 1958 for the Fund for Adult Education, an independent organization established by The Ford Foundation in 1951. The experiment explored possibilities in the development and use of study-discussion programs for adults led by trained lay leaders. It was a successful attempt to find ways by which high quality learning experiences could be economically offered to many adults by educational institutions. This study concludes that study-discussion opens exciting opportunities for schools, libraries, colleges and universities, business, industry, labor, agriculture, and government to provide liberal education of high quality to vastly greater audiences than they have yet reached. This is the first of four studies of the effectiveness of study-discussion being published by the Fund. The other three will appear early in 1961.

A Cooperative Study of Teacher Professional Loads, Extra Assignments, and Extra Pay. Lafayette, Indiana: Department of Education, Education Building, Purdue University. 1960. 75 pp. This is a report of a study of the equity and adequacy of the present policies relating to extra pay for extra work in the South Bend, Indiana, school system. The publication includes tables and recommendations. It was concluded that extra pay for extra work should take into account three factors, (1) the total clock hours devoted to the extra duty during the school year outside of the school day, (2) the quality and importance of the assignment, and (3) the basic salary of teachers generally. Also a formula for computing extra pay was determined— $\text{Extra Pay} = \text{Base Salary} \times \text{Quality Factor} \times \text{Time Factor}$. This is explained and examples of use are shown in the book.

CORSON, J. J. *The Governance of Higher Education*. New York 36: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 330 West 42nd Street. 1960. 216 pp.

\$5.50. It is recognized that by 1975 institutions of higher education must find ways to admit perhaps twice as many students as they now accept. In addition, Mr. Corson points out, America's technological strides are compelling them to develop new curricula to keep pace, and American and foreign businesses and governments are pressing them to provide increased training, research, and technical assistance.

These challenges are already compelling many a college and university to make decisions on its purposes, its size, the use of its facilities, the research contracts that it can or wants to accept, whether regular classes should be held the year around, and many other questions. "The well-being of higher education," states Mr. Corson, "its progressive development to keep pace with the evolution of our society, depends heavily on the effectiveness of the governance of each college and university."

What characterizes the administration of a university? It struggles under the same dilemma as any other organization—how to order the energies of all members to achieve the organization's goals while simultaneously encouraging the individual enterprise of each member. It differs from other organizations, says Mr. Corson, in that "the process of deciding is distinctive in the college or university in the degree to which final responsibility for making decisions is diffused . . . beyond the trustees and the president to the faculty as a group, to individual teachers, department heads, deans, coaches, and administrative officers."

COVILLE, W. J.; T. W. COSTELLO; and F. L. ROUKE. *Abnormal Psychology*. New York 3: Barnes and Noble, Inc., 105 Fifth Avenue. 1960. 284 pp. \$1.75. This outline presents a descriptive and interpretative summary of the field of abnormal behavior beginning with a discussion of the differences between the abnormal and the normal, tracing the history of man's efforts to understand deviations in behavior, and analyzing current theories which attempt to explain the development of personality and the causes of mental illness. After examining the various kinds of abnormal behavior in accordance with the most recent classification system of the American Psychiatric Association, this book describes diagnostic and therapeutic procedures and techniques used in the field of prevention. The outline is not exclusively oriented toward any one school of thought, although the principal theoretical orientations are summarized objectively. The outline includes the main points discussed in fourteen widely used college textbooks in abnormal psychology, which are cross-indexed with the outline in the tabulated bibliography and the quick reference table.

D'AMICO, VICTOR. *Experiments in Creative Art Teaching*. New York 22: Doubleday and Company, 575 Madison Avenue. 1960. 64 pp. While this volume is a report on the growth and activities of the Museum of Modern Art's Department of Education during the twenty-two years of its existence, it is fundamentally an exposition of its underlying ideas, methods, and explorations. The department did not begin full-fledged, but as an experimental project with a gallery of exhibitions for children and young people of high-school age, and with a circulating program of exhibits for only ten schools. The project grew as it attempted to find solutions to problems in art education involving the child, the adult, and the art teacher. New directions were explored as new needs arose, such as establishing an art center for war veterans or experimenting with television as a means for teaching art. The educational philosophy presented here is not merely theory, it is a result of practical experience over an

extended period of time. It is hoped that the ideas and methods described will be of service to other educators and museums in extending or developing their programs, and that they will provide encouragement and a resource for the art teacher as he carries on his important work of developing creative individuals.

DIVISION OF RESEARCH. *Estimates of School Statistics, 1960-61.* Washington 6, D. C.: National Education Association, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W. 1960. 32 pp. 75 cents; discounts on quantity orders: 2-9 copies, 10% discount; 10 or more copies, 20% discount. This is the third edition of this publication in the NEAs Research Report series. This report provides, state by state, up-to-date information on school districts, pupils enrolled, teachers' salaries, revenues and expenditures, and other topics. All figures are estimates and cannot be regarded as official information. The early pages provide some interesting 10-year summaries of trends.

DULL, L. W. *Criteria for Evaluating the Supervision Program in School Systems.* Findlay, Ohio: The author, 127 Highland Drive. 1960. 112 pp. (8½" x 11") \$2.50. Here are 473 criteria for evaluating the supervisory program in a school system. By the use of these criteria, school personnel are expected to be able to ascertain strengths and weaknesses of their supervision program. They are adaptable for use in school systems of various sizes, including both elementary and secondary education. The criteria encompass the work of all supervisors of instruction, including principals, general and special supervisors, curriculum directors, and superintendents.

There were 473 criteria prepared in the study and these were organized under six divisions which were further subdivided into 27 sections. The six general areas treated in the evaluative instrument are: (1) Philosophy and Objectives for the Supervision Program, (2) Organization and Structure for the Supervision Program, (3) Leaders in the Supervisory Program, (4) Relationships of Supervisory Leaders, (5) Activities of Supervisory Leaders, and (6) Provision for Appraisal of Supervisory Leaders and the Outcomes of the Supervision Program. The criteria are arranged in the evaluative instrument so that they can be used to evaluate the total supervision program or its parts. Self-evaluation is the process recommended for use with the criteria.

GOODLAD, J. I., and R. H. ANDERSON. *The Nongraded Elementary School.* New York 17: Harcourt, Brace and Company, 750 Third Avenue. 1959. 256 pp. \$4.95. In this volume, the authors point out the anachronistic nature of graded school structure and many of the practices that inevitably accompany it. They seek, further, to propose and describe an alternative: a nongraded structure and a variety of more enlightened school practices that are related to the absence of grades and lock-step. The incompatibility between Procrustean standards and present insights into child development constitutes the subject matter of this chapter. Chapter 2 analyzes the questionable effectiveness of nonpromotion in reducing the discrepancy between grade standards and the realities of pupil attainment in conventional elementary schools. The next chapter describes how the lock-step of graded structure developed and analyzes the emergence of a new vision of what effective school structure might be like. The operation of schools without grades provides the substance of Chapter 4. Chapter 5 examines certain modern theories of curriculum development and their relationship to nongraded structure, with emphasis on the individual classroom. Chapter 6 discusses home-school reporting, Chapter 7 the relationship between realistic school standards and sound mental health. An eighth chapter offers suggestions for initiating and administering nongraded

plans. The concluding chapter summarizes the evidence that substantiates the worth of the nongraded school and ends with a word of encouragement and advice to those considering the nongraded plan.

HARTSHORN, W. C. *Music for the Academically Talented Student in the Secondary School*. Washington 6, D. C.: National Education Association, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W. 1960. 128 pp. \$1.50; Discount: 2-9 copies, 10 per cent; and 10 or more copies, 20 per cent. This publication suggests course content and develops a guide for teaching which, it is hoped, will make a significant contribution to secondary-school music education, particularly for the academically talented student as distinguished from the musically talented student.

HILL, F. W., chairman. *The School Business Administrator*. Evanston, Illinois: Association of School Business Officials, 1010 Church Street. 1960. 81 pp. \$1; quantity discounts upon request. This is a special committee report sponsored by the ASBO on the qualification and responsibilities of the school business administrator and published in cooperation with the American Association of School Administrators. The publication is composed of 12 chapters: Who Is the School Administrator? The Responsibilities of the School Business Manager. What Is the Place of the School Business Administrator in the Total Organization of the School System? What Is the Relationship of the School Business Administrator to Other School Business Personnel? What Is the Organization for School Business Operations? What Should Be the Preparation and Experience of the School Business Administrator? What Should Be the Personal Characteristics of a School Business Administrator? When Does a School System Need a School Business Administrator? What Is the Current Status of Certification of School Business Administrators? What Credentials are Required? What Procedures Should Be Followed for Establishing a School Business Administrator's Position in a School System Which Does Not Have One? How Can a School Business Administrator Be Secured? How Should the Salary of a School Business Administrator Be Determined? and A Code of Ethics for School Business Officials.

HUEBNER, THEODORE. *Why Johnny Should Learn Foreign Languages*. Philadelphia 39: Chilton Company—Book Division, 56th and Chestnut Streets. 1960. 156 pp. \$4. This book gives a brief history of foreign languages in the United States, both as a medium of communication and as a school subject. The neglect of this important area by our educators is pointed up with regard to the fields of international relations, business, and military defense.

Improvement in Secondary Education Through Group Studies. New Cumberland, Pennsylvania: Samuel P. Bomgardner, Principal, New Cumberland Junior High School. 1960. 81 pp. \$1. It was in 1945 that the Pennsylvania Branch of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals initiated its program of Summer Workshops in secondary education. Feeling rather keenly that there was need for a "grass roots" approach to the identification and study of problems common to secondary schools, it began with a single workshop at Drexel Institute of Technology in Philadelphia. Through the years the program has grown to thirteen workshops in as many areas of the state, serving about 1,100 teachers and administrators annually.

The workshop program is the chief project of the Association's Research and Planning Committee. From a list of about thirty problems suggested for study by workshop participants and from within the committee, thirteen were chosen for study last summer, each Workshop Center selecting from one to four topics

for intensive appraisal. Complete bibliographies on these topics were prepared by graduate classes at the University of Pittsburgh under the direction of Dr. George Gould and distributed to all workshop study groups. From this year's workshops, summary reports covering ten topics were submitted to the Editing Committee which met in July at Drexel Lodge to synthesize the reports. This Yearbook is the product of that meeting. The Yearbook discusses some issues arising from our rapidly expanding school program. Ten problems are discussed. They are: Summer School Programs; The School Library; Trends in Social Studies; Promotion Policies and Practices; Developments in College Admission; Practices in Granting Diplomas and Certificates; Methods of Following up Graduates; The Foreign Language Laboratory; What Type of Middle School?; and A Sensible Philosophy of Homework.

KANTER, C. E., and ROBERT WEST. *Phonetics*, revised edition. New York 16: Harper and Brothers, 49 East 33rd Street. 1960. 455 pp. The material in this book has been developed with two main purposes in mind: first, it has been the authors' aim to lay here a foundation of phonetic principles on the basis of a sound neurophysiological background; second, they have endeavored to make the subject matter of phonetics more teachable than that frequently presented to the student. By *teachable*, they mean not only more palatable but also more understandable. In pursuance of this latter aim, they present a somewhat "different" approach to the subject—an approach which, they believe, emphasizes a consistent and logical development of the material.

This book is intended primarily as a text for the introductory course in phonetics as offered by departments of speech in colleges and universities. It is hoped that it will fill the need for a textbook in phonetics written from the point of view of the teacher of speech. It provides ample material for a semester's study. It is particularly adapted to this use, since its primary concern is with fundamental principles. It should give the beginning student the basic background and material necessary for advanced study or for work in the fields of applied phonetics.

MCCRATH, G. D. *A Student Manual for Methods of Teaching*. New York 16: G. P. Putnam's Sons, 210 Madison Avenue. 1960. 205 pp. \$2.95. This book is planned for use by student teachers, by students in courses of secondary-school general methods, and by secondary-school teachers on the job to stimulate in-service study and growth. The twenty-six units have been selected after much thought about the topics ordinarily considered in the general methods area. They have been developed, regrouped, distilled, and combined from an original list of more than a hundred such topics. The unit arrangement is as follows: (I) introductory note, (II) pertinent suggestions, (III) references to consult, (IV) highlight ideas from the references, (V) promising practices, and, occasionally, other topics. In addition, student selection of specific references, both book and periodical, is provided for in most of the units.

The approach is centered on the theme, "What can I find that is of help in the problem of . . .?" The reader is invited to search deeply, to distill, to weigh, and to utilize group contribution and judgment. The material has been organized in such a manner as to be readily adaptable for use without a companion book, or it may be used in conjunction with any of the methods books available to students today. It is expected that this book will be used in courses in which the student is given an opportunity to extend his intellectual horizon

by building on a nucleus of suggestions obtained through readings, discussions, and observations.

MEDLIN, W. K.; C. B. LINDQUIST; and M. L. SCHMITT. *Soviet Education Programs*. Washington 25, D. C.: Superintendent of Documents. 1960. 299 pp. \$1.25. The U.S. Office of Education sent an official group of specialists to the U.S.S.R. in the spring of 1959 with the specific objectives of looking carefully at the teaching methods, the general facilities, and the student performances in areas of education particularly emphasized by Soviet authorities in the general school system. At the same time, it was deemed important to study both the foundations and the balance between science and nonscience subjects in the curriculums of Soviet Education. This publication is a report of the group's findings. It deals specifically with the foundations, science and polytechnic curriculums in the general school, and with teacher preparation.

PETERSEN, RENEE and WILLIAM, and WARREN ROVETCH. *University Adult Education*. New York 16: Harper and Brothers, 49 East 33rd Street. 1960. 310 pp. \$5.60. This volume, restricted to university adult education, is developed from the single premise: significant college-level education of adults is an important task and a legitimate expression of higher education's mission. But, to carry out this function, typical general-extension activity must be cleansed of "university noneducation for adults." It must also be protected against commercialism and denigration by the rest of the campus.

This timely "Guide to Policy" suggests principles of operation for educational policy, financing, organization, and administration. A new administrative concept, the "total extension function," is introduced; namely, everything that the university does in addition to regular daytime teaching of adolescents and faculty research.

RECKLESS, M. W. *Understanding Arithmetic*. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc. 1961. 382 pp. \$3.75. This text stresses understanding. It is an all-inclusive text and practice book in basic mathematics and eliminates the need for practice workbooks in most cases. It can be used as a basic arithmetic text for 7th, 8th, and 9th grades; as a diagnostic, remedial, or refresher book for grades 7 through 12. It may also be used as a supplementary drill book at any high-school level. It enables high-school students to understand arithmetic, to estimate answers, and to work on approximate computations. It takes up each fundamental process separately for the different kinds and forms of numbers. The fundamental operations with common and decimal fractions are limited to like denominators so that the student is thoroughly familiar with all these operations before he deals with unlike fractions.

It provides class-tested material, tested on students of varying abilities at different grade levels; teaching for understanding was most important for motivating the students. The reading and vocabulary levels were also tested by actual classroom experience. It permits chapters to be studied in any desired sequence; explains the number system and fundamental operations by means of the modified abacus; supplies gradual, explanation-graded steps with practice on each; gives parallel treatment on common fractions and decimal fractions; and furnishes over 6,000 exercises to help overcome the problem of large-size classes.

Text questions motivate and personalize arithmetic. Practice exercises help to determine understandings, misunderstandings, and to uncover weaknesses. Exercises aid in ascertaining the student's mastery of the subject and to increase his skills. Review questions point up weaknesses and refresh skills. Final exer-

cises at the end of each chapter test understanding of skills developed in the chapter and may be used as tests for grading purposes. Oral exercises test understanding ability to compute mentally. Cumulative tests and miscellaneous end-of-book problems test applications of material learned. A *Teacher's Manual* contains suggestions, chapter tests, and cumulative tests.

Reflections and Projections. Oklahoma City: Frontiers of Science Foundation of Oklahoma, Inc. 1960. 36 pp. This pictorial and text presentation discusses the first five years of this outstanding project and considers its operation for the next five years for which it has committed itself. This book reports on selected programs and projects promoted during the first five years of the Foundation. Each of these has sought the stimulation of able youth and improvement of education at elementary, secondary, and higher education levels throughout Oklahoma. The book is accompanied by a long-play record telling about the Frontiers of Science Foundation.

Sources of Information on Behavioral Problems of Adolescence. Washington 9, D. C.: American Psychiatric Association, 1700 Eighteenth Street, N.W. 1960. 96 pp. (9" x 11"). \$3. This is an index of scientific, basic studies (1,445 books, articles, and unpublished dissertations) from 1945 to 1958 and their sources dealing with youth from ages 14 to 22. Also included are a directory of American institutions engaged in youth research, a directory of current bibliographical services useful in youth research, an analysis of the coverage of journal articles on youth by standard indexing and abstracting services, and a list of periodicals pertinent to the study of youth. It provides a comprehensive reference source of recent and current research dealing with youth problems.

THELEN, H. A. *Education and the Human Quest.* New York 16: Harper and Brothers, 49 East 33rd Street. 1960. 224 pp. \$4.75. From a compelling belief that education is fifty years behind the social sciences, Professor Thelen says in the prologue: "Our situation is grave, more, it is immoral. For to act ignorantly when knowledge is available, to deny realities that patently exist and make a genuine difference is the worst crime of civilization." After an analysis of the weaknesses of the whole approach to education, the author discusses his educational theory and practice. He outlines a program for a drastic overhauling, emphasizing what he believes education can be if we harness all we know about man, knowledge, and society. He presents classroom procedures as models to illustrate ways in which education can become not merely a process of memorization or consumption of knowledge, but a process of inquiry.

WEBER, C. O. *Basic Philosophies of Education.* New York 17: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 383 Madison Avenue. 1960. 347 pp. \$4.50. This book covers six basic frames of reference in educational thought: religion, political control, traditionalism and essentialism, idealism, realism, and instrumentalism. Man's frames of reference tend to become cosmic in scope, having their origins in the distant past. The effects produced by Plato as a physical person, the echoes of his footsteps, have long since died away. But our remembrance of his thoughts leaps centuries of time to provide, among other things, part of the modern educator's frame of reference. The six points of view covered in this book, although originating in past eras, are still very much alive both as conceptual frames and as guides to educational practices.

One aim of the book is to provide adequate material for a semester course on educational philosophies which are "classic" without having lost contemporary significance. The book itself gives the historical and systematic information needed for a critical understanding of each philosophy of education

presented. A second aim is to avoid miseducation from this source, this book gives rather full expository accounts of each philosophy, followed by its application to education. The views of selected leaders of each school of thought are presented as *integrated wholes*. A third aim, always challenging, is to integrate as closely as possible the more sweeping and abstract principles of philosophers with the down-to-earth problems of education.

WITICH, W. A., and G. H. HALSTED, compilers and editors. *Educators Guide to Free Tapes, Scripts, and Transcriptions*. Randolph, Wisconsin: Educators Progress Service. 1961. 219 pp. \$5.75. This seventh edition is completely new and is devoted exclusively to selected free tapes, free scripts, and free transcriptions. It is a complete, up-to-date, annotated schedule of selected audio aids and scripts—bringing you the compiled information on these selected *free* educational enrichment audio and script materials, all at your fingertips, within the covers of a single book. This edition lists, classifies, and provides complete information on sources, availability, and contents of 129 free tapes, 230 free scripts, and 106 free transcriptions—a total of 465 valuable materials. Of these, 155 are new starred (*) titles. Additionally, it gives the busy, alert educator and librarian information on the nature, purposes, and use of these materials not to be found in any other single source. Each entry includes title, running time, date of release, an annotation, terms and conditions of loans, names and addresses of agencies—availability and information on the nature and content.

Books for Pupil-Teacher Use

The American Imagination. Middletown, Connecticut: Wesleyan University Publications. 1960. 224 pp. A critical survey of the Arts from *The Times Literary Supplement* of London, England.

ASIMOV, ISAAC. *The Double Planet*. New York 19: Sabelard-Schuman, Ltd., 6 West 57th Street. 1960. 158 pp. \$3. In this book, the author tells the story of how man has probed the secrets of Earth and Moon. He carries the story from ancient times to this very moment, when we are on the point of reaching a new climax by actually landing on the Moon, the other half of the double planet.

BAAR, JAMES, and W. E. HOWARD. *Polaris!* New York 17: Harcourt, Brace and Company, 750 Third Avenue. 1960. 245 pp. \$4.50. This book tells the story of this weapon system—its conception and its dynamic development—as an exciting human as well as scientific adventure. It reveals the enterprise and dedication of gallant men in an extraordinary gamble—the odds against them, time running out, and the stakes nothing less than this nation's security. It speaks of events of incalculable significance that offer to the free world the hope of peace with honor.

BARNET, SYLVAN; MORTON BERMAN; WILLIAM BURTO, editors. *The Genius of the Irish Theater*. New York 22: New American Library of World Literature, Inc., 501 Madison Avenue. 1960. 368 pp. 75¢. The complete text of seven Irish plays—*John Bull's Other Island* by Shaw, *The Canavans* by Lady Gregory, *Deirdre of the Sorrows* by Synge, *The Words Upon the Window Pane* and *La La Noo* both by Yeats, *On the Train* by O'Connor, and *Purple Dust* by O'Casey.

BERLO, D. K. *The Process of Communication*. New York 17: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, Inc., 383 Madison Avenue. 1960. 332 pp. This highly interesting book provides a description of modern communication theory that

will be useful as a foundation both for further study and for the practice of communication in any field—journalism, advertising, radio and television, business, and public relations.

The author draws together material from the behavioral sciences and from linguistics, semiotics, and the philosophy of languages. Employing the insights of these disciplines, he analyzes the factors involved in understanding, predicting, and affecting human behavior through communication. He develops, in nontechnical terms, a realistic model of the events that take place in any communication.

BESSER, MARIANNE. *Growing Up with Science.* New York 36: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 330 West 42nd Street. 1960. 231 pp. \$4.50. In this book, the author has brought together the recommendations of leading scientists such as Nobel Prize winners Harold Urey, Herman Muller, and others, plus the advice and experiences of parents whose children have won top prizes in the National Science Talent Search. With the help of suggestions from these two groups of parents, Miss Besser illustrates how the home, the community, vacations, weekend trips, and the child's special interests can be used to introduce a knowledge of science in such a way as to provide pleasure for the whole family.

Betty Crocker's Party Book. New York 20: Golden Press, Inc., 630 Fifth Avenue. 1960. 64 pp. This book presents plans for games, favors, menus, and recipes for every kind of special occasion. Here are real aids for parties.

Book of Scouting. New York 20: Golden Press, Inc., 630 Fifth Avenue. 1959. 165 pp. \$4.95. Here is the biggest, most exciting and comprehensive collection of Boy Scout history, lore, pictures (over 300), and practical information ever assembled in one volume. The superb illustrations—most of them in color—include paintings by Norman Rockwell, plus many line drawings and sketches. In these pages, every branch and activity of Scouting is accounted for—how each started, how each has developed over the years, what each means to the Scout today.

The absorbing narrative tells of the British military hero Lord Baden-Powell who, while a young officer in India and Africa, conceived the idea of Scouting and, on his return to England, founded the Scout movement. (Among the illustrations in this chapter are never-before-published sketches by Baden-Powell himself.) Here, too, is the story of how the Scout movement was brought to America half a century ago, how the American program was shaped, how the award and badge system was set up, and how the Oath and Law were formulated.

BOUMPHREY, GEOFFREY. *Engines and How They Work.* New York 22: Franklin Watts, Inc., 575 Lexington Avenue. 1960. 255 pp. \$4.95. The most complex engine is made readily intelligible to the most unmechanically minded layman. This book is a fascinating study of man's conversion of the elements of power contained in the earth, sea, and sky about him and how they have been developed to use this power.

Beginning with the earliest attempts by the ancient Egyptians and Greeks to harness natural energy, Geoffrey Bumphrey describes the bold experiments of the pioneers of steam and electricity, which led to the invention of the steam engine, the steam ship, the railroad, the automobile, the diesel engine, and the airplane, ending with latest developments in the field of the long-range rocket and nuclear fission.

BRAD, J. B. *Homestead on the Kootenai*. Caldwell, Idaho: The Caxton Printers, Ltd. 1960. 180 pp. \$5. This is a fascinating and colorful narrative, giving a good picture of family life in a far corner of the Pacific Northwest in the early years of the century. There are accounts of farming activities, of experiences with Indians, tramps, and pets, of fishing trips and expeditions for huckleberries, of Libby's first circus, of memorable Christmases and Fourth of July, and of one major struggle with the rising waters of the Kootenai River.

After the flood, it was necessary for Harry to make a second trip to England where his aged mother had been in failing health for some time. In June of the following year, he returned home after his mother's death, bringing many personal effects—pictures, beautiful china, and silverware. Sufficient money was realized from the estate to improve the farm and build the "new" house, a two-story modern frame dwelling on the rise where the family had camped during the high water. Here the "littlest little sister" was born, here all the brothers and sisters grew up, and here, secure from any future rampage of the treacherous but lovely green Kootenai, the house still stands safe and foursquare.

BRAND, CHRISTIANNA. *Heaven Knows Who*. New York 17: Charles Scribner's Sons, 597 Fifth Avenue. 1960. 283 pp. \$3.95. Jessie M'Lachlan was brought to trial in Glasgow for the ferocious murder of her dearest friend, Jess M'Pherson, who died on the night of July 4, 1862. The defense argument was simple—and exceptional: that the prisoner had been nowhere near the scene when the crime was committed; that it had been committed by another person who was named, a supposedly respectable old gentleman in his eighties, James Fleming. To reach a unanimous verdict, the jury took exactly fifteen minutes; but, after that verdict, the case was by no means closed.

CAIDIN, MARTIN. *The Astronauts*. New York 10: E. P. Dutton and Company, 300 Park Avenue, South. 1960. 192 pp. \$3.95. This is the dramatic story of this incredible experiment that will literally send a man out of this world.

CERF, BENNETT. *Out on a Limerick*. New York 16: Harper and Brothers, 49 E. 33rd Street. 1960. 125 pp. \$2.95. A collection of over 300 limericks.

CHEKHOV, ANTON. *Selected Stories*. New York 22: New American Library of World Literature, Inc., 501 Madison Avenue. 1960. 287 pp. 50¢. This is a collection of 20 short stories by one of the world's great masters of the short stories. These are stories of everyday life as the author saw it.

CLEVELAND, HARLAN; G. J. MANGONE; and J. C. ADAMS. *The Overseas Americans*. New York 36: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 330 West 42nd Street. 1960. 334 pp. \$5.95. *The Overseas Americans* is a first-hand exploration of the elements needed for successful performance in overseas assignments, plus an imaginative program for the recruitment, selection, and training of personnel who today are carrying—whether they know it or not—important responsibilities for United States foreign policy.

CROSS, WILBUR. *Naval Battles and Heroes*. New York 20: Golden Press, Inc., 630 Fifth Avenue. 1960. 154 pp. \$3.50. This second sea saga covers the history of the Navy in North America, from the tiny fleet sent out by the Continental Congress in 1775 to the great Pacific fleets of World War II—with a look forward to the nuclear ships of the 1960s.

Names and faces which should be familiar to every American boy and girl appear throughout this history—John Paul Jones, Oliver Hazard Perry, Stephen Decatur, Farragut, Dewey, and some of the more illustrious admirals of the Second World War. The stories of many lesser-known heroes are also included: there is Gustavus Conyngham, who, on May 3, 1777, in the 10-gun *Surprise*, sailed up the English Channel and captured His Majesty's ship *Prince of Orange*, while the captain was having breakfast, and Ensign George H. Gay, the lone survivor of an air attack on the Japanese at Midway. He crash-landed in mid-ocean, surrounded by the enemy fleet, and watched—undetected—the entire spectacular battle before being rescued.

DAUGHERTY, JAMES. *William Blake*. New York 22: The Viking Press, Inc., 652 Madison Avenue. 1960. 172 pp. \$4. The author writes of Blake as if they had been lifelong friends. He tells of the childhood, steeped in Biblical lore and affected by visions so graphic, he could describe the most minute details; how young Blake haunted Westminster Abbey, drinking in the beauty of the stained-glass windows, the sculptured forms, and making careful drawings of Gothic carvings and architectural details; and how he later worked entirely from his colorful imagination, saying, "Any fool can copy nature."

Dictionary of Spoken Spanish. New York 22: Doubleday and Company, Inc., 575 Madison Avenue. 1960. 544 pp. \$1.95. This Spanish-English, English-Spanish dictionary contains over 18,000 commonly used, practical words, phrases, and expressions with supplements on pronunciation, grammar, money, road signs, geography, and food—for the student, traveler, teacher, and businessman.

DISNEY, WALT. *Kidnapped*. New York 20: Golden Press, Inc., 630 Fifth Avenue. 1960. 64 pp. This book, with the story adapted by Gaylord Dubois, presents Stevenson's *Kidnapped* in an interesting manner with beautiful colored pictures.

———. *Nomads of the North*. New York 20: Golden Press, Inc., 630 Fifth Avenue. 1960. 64 pp. This book, based on the book of the same title by James Oliver Curwood, presents with beautiful colored pictures the story adapted by Gaylord Dubois. This is the story of the animals of the North and their ways of living.

DISRAELI, ROBERT. *New Worlds Through the Microscope*. New York 22: The Viking Press, 625 Madison Avenue. 1960. 175 pp. \$4. This book, designed to arouse the interest of young people in the invisible world around them, shows how to pursue these inquiries with the microscope. Excellent photomicrographs of insects, algae, fungi, pollen and seeds, crystals, cloth, and other specimens reveal the fascinating sights which can be duplicated by the reader in his own microscope. There are directions for finding the specimens, mounting them on slides, and using the microscope. In addition, the text accompanying each photograph provides the background for understanding the subject under investigation and answers many questions about the microscopic world.

EMERY, F. B. *A Look at Ourselves*. Boston 20: The Christopher Publishing House, 1140 Columbus Avenue. 1960. 247 pp. \$4. During the progress of our country, we have achieved phenomenal success in practically every field of endeavor. However, in doing these things, we have depleted our natural resources considerably, have gone deeply into debt and incurred risks and dangers which might change into a real calamity if not countered by honest thinking and courageous action.

In this book, the author has evaluated the *pro's* and *con's* of our American way of life. He presents an appraisal of the political machine; the result of governmental control of business; our science and religious programs; our freedom of press; courts, and many other subjects of importance in a searching analysis of our democracy which will prove invaluable in keeping America leader among the nations of the world.

English Pattern Practices. Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Press. 1958. 304 pp. This book, likewise by the English Language Institute Staff of the University, recognizes pattern practice as a most important activity of learning a foreign language and is basic to learning the English language. Materials and instructions here presented have grown out of experiments and discussions since the Institute's founding in 1941. This course conserves the successful procedures of former editions and also incorporates a variety of new features.

English Sentence Patterns. Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Press. 1958. 342 pp. This book contains linguistically graded lessons to teach students to speak and understand English sentences. It has been developed by the English Language Institute of the University. It together with *English Pattern Practices*, *English Pronunciation*, and *English Vocabulary* is a set which together constitutes an intensive course in English.

EULLER, JOHN. *Antarctic World*. New York 19: Abelard-Schuman, Limited, 6 West 57th Street. 1960. 222 pp. \$3.75. This book is a fast-paced, fact-packed survey of man's last continent of adventure. Its approach is historical, but it is *not* history. It is a midcentury snapshot of an environment little known until recently and now in furious flux in man's understanding. Author John Euller ranges widely in the development of his subject. He treats of plankton (a food source for man?), penguins (did they ever fly?), and politics (who wants Antarctica and why?).

FARR, LT. COL. RICHARD. *Cadet by Appointment*. Arlington 7, Virginia: The author, P. O. Box 7093. \$1.50 fourth class mailing, \$1.75 first class mailing. Each of the military services publishes catalogues outlining the prerequisites and appointment procedures for the U.S. Military Academy; U.S. Naval Academy; U.S. Air Force Academy; U.S. Coast Guard Academy; and the U.S. Merchant Marine Academy. A young man considering a military career and a regular commission obtained by successfully completing a course of instruction at one of the Academies must first obtain an official nomination from a nominating authority and then be examined to see if he meets certain prescribed general eligibility, mental, and physical requirements.

This book is the only publication in which information is compiled concerning methods of applying, admission requirements, and number of appointments for all the Federal Academies. Details of the Regular Naval Reserve Officers Training Corps Program (NROTC) have also been included as this program also provides for a regular officer commission by attendance at one of fifty-two colleges and universities at which an NROTC unit is established.

Candidates for all the academies except the Coast Guard Academy must take a scholastic entrance examination which consists of College Entrance Examination Board Tests. They must also take preliminary and final physical examinations which are conducted at major Army, Navy, and Air Force installations. Details of these examinations are outlined in this book. For the reader's convenience, a sample application for appointment is included.

FESSENDEN, KATHARINE. *The Old Testament Story, Adam to Jonah*. New York 3: Henry Z. Walck, Inc., 101 Fifth Avenue. 1960. 155 pp. \$4.75.

Many, many centuries ago there was a family—the family of Adam—that grew to be a great nation. It is their history that is told in the Old Testament. Katharine Fessenden has selected and retold the stories from the Creation to the time of Jonah and woven them into a significant and dramatic narrative of the people, of their heroes, and of their God.

The First Book Atlas. New York 22: Franklin Watts, Inc., 575 Lexington Avenue. 1960. 96 pp. \$1.95. This book by the editors and cartographers of C. S. Hammond and Company contains fifty maps of countries and continents with political boundaries, capitals, major cities, important rivers, seas, and other features. All are done with relief shading, accurately highlight the varied surface of the earth. Hemisphere views assure “global” co-ordination. Useful product and land-use maps together with informative data in both graphic and word form accompany the political maps. Attractive line drawings add a necessary light touch.

FLEMING, ALICE. *Wheels.* Philadelphia 5: J. B. Lippincott Company, East Washington Square. 1960. 176 pp. \$3.75. All over the world in thousands of different ways people are making use of man's greatest invention—the wheel. Wheeled vehicles have changed not only our recreation and travel, but also every aspect of our daily lives. They have won wars, and helped explorers to track out new roads on the world's map. The full story of their development is almost a history of civilization. This wide-ranging and fascinating field is brought into sharp focus by the author's text and Gustav Schrotter's drawings.

FREDERICKS, P. G. *The Great Adventure.* New York 10: E. P. Dutton and Company, 300 Park Avenue South. 1960. 253 pp. \$4.75. Here is the memorable story of America's participation—on land, at sea, in the air, and on the home front—in World War I, sometimes referred to as the forgotten war. When President Woodrow Wilson drove from the White House to the brightly lit capitol one rainy April evening in 1917, almost everyone in America knew what was coming. For months Wilson had worked to keep America out of war. But sympathy for the Allies, ruthless ship sinkings by German U-boats, and German intrigue in the United States had swayed American neutrality and gradually brought about the inevitable. Now, on the evening of April 2, President Wilson stood before Congress and asked for war.

FRIAR, J. G., and G. W. KELLY. *A Practical Spanish Grammar.* New York: Doubleday and Company, Inc. 184 pp. The primary purpose of this course in Spanish is to furnish the minimum essentials of Spanish grammar in a very short period of time. The book has been purposely condensed in order to make its use practical. The fundamentals of Spanish grammar are given in the lessons and the first part of the Appendix. Practice material follows.

The Spanish-English vocabulary includes only the Spanish words used in the text. The English-Spanish vocabulary includes many words that are not in the text, but that should be helpful. A rather complete list of idiomatic expressions have been given with particular attention to those used in Mexico. A very large list of words alike, or almost alike, in spelling, and alike in meaning in at least one acceptation is included in order to assist the advanced student in enlarging his vocabulary, and also to show the great similarity of the two languages.

FULTON, R. B. *Original Marxism—Estranged Offspring.* Boston 20: The Christopher Publishing House, 1140 Columbus Avenue. 1960. 167 pp. \$3. A major issue in today's world is Communism, a doctrine which has spread with

amazing rapidity in the past few decades. Just how did this doctrine come into being? What type of men were its founders? What points of contact are there between original Marxism and Christianity? And what are the real and the pseudo differences between them? The answers to these questions and many more can be found in this book. This is a comprehensive survey of the Marxian system of thought, gleaned from years of extensive research in the writings of Karl Marx and Friedrich Engels.

GARDNER, MARTIN. *Science Puzzlers*. New York 22: The Viking Press, 625 Madison Avenue. 1960. 127 pp. \$2. While some of these stunts were known even to the ancient Greeks, others are as modern as space travel, and each, with its intriguing possibilities, will start young minds working. And Anthony Ravielli's clear drawings add to the pleasure of learning "something of importance about science."

GARRETT, GEORGE. *The Finished Man*. New York 22: New American Library of World Literature, Inc., 501 Madison Avenue. 1960. 224 pp. 50¢. This is a novel of modern politics and a man on the edge of failure who finds new meaning in courage and action.

GILLESPIE, T. H. *Zoo-Man Stories*. New York 19: Taplinger Publishing Co., Inc., 119 West 57th Street. 1960. 121 pp. \$2. The author tells about the evolution of the many species and about how the various animals had to learn—down through the ages—how to swim, crawl, walk, climb, and fly. He tells about how animals go to school! He tells about how the different kinds of animals protect themselves and find food, how long they live, about what kinds of homes they like best, and many, many other educational and interesting facts about them. The author talks about animals in an enthusiastic and jolly manner that has made him the favorite animal story man for children on the Scottish BBC for more than thirty years. The drawings are by the well-known nature artist, Len Fullerton.

———. *Zoo-Man Talks*. New York 19: Taplinger Publishing Co., Inc., 119 West 57th Street. 1960. 121 pp. \$2. In this book pupils will learn how animals grow, how animals help each other, how they behave by day and by night, how they befriend each other, how they play, how they make journeys. This book is a storehouse of fun and information written by the man who has been a favorite animal storyteller for children on the Scottish BBC for more than thirty years.

The illustrations by the well-known nature artist, Len Fullerton, make this a book even grown-ups will treasure.

GILMAN, PETER. *Diamond Head*. New York 22: New American Library of World Literature, Inc., 501 Madison Avenue. 1960. 384 pp. 75¢. A novel about the islands' dynamic first family and its influence on modern Hawaii.

GOODRICH, N. L. *The Ancient Myths*. New York 22: New American Library of World Literature, Inc., 501 Madison Avenue. 1960. 252 pp. 50¢. Here are seven myths of Greece, Egypt, India, Persia, Crete, Sumer, and Rome—tales of adventure, tragedy, love, and terror.

GRICE, FREDERICK. *Aidan and the Strolling Players*. New York 16: Duell, Sloan and Pearce, Inc., 124 East 30th Street. 1960. 168 pp. \$3. Left in the custody of his uncle, a half-crazed squire, Aidan runs away from home. He joins a troupe of strolling players, and thus meets Jeremy, who shares all his adventures, and a little dog named Crab, who plays no small part in their escapades.

Grimms' Fairy Tales. New York 10: Grosset and Dunlap, Inc., 1107 Broadway. 1960. 386 pp. \$3.87. These famous stories, 55 in number, have been translated by Mrs. E. V. Lucas, Lucy Crane, and Marian Edwardes and illustrated by Fritz Kredel—some in color. Here are stories enjoyed by both young and old.

HALLARD, PETER. *Barrier Reef Bandits*. New York 19: Criterion Books, Inc., 6 West 57th Street. 1960. 183 pp. \$3.50. When the *Wahito* chugged out from Thursday Island bound for Brisbane, there was a fortune in pearls in her safe. And also on board, planted as carefully as the pearls, was a passenger whose smooth fingers had earned for him a reputation as a safe-cracker.

HAMILTON, RUSSELL, compiler. *Science, Science, Science*. New York 22: Franklin Watts, Inc., 575 Lexington Avenue. 1960. 224 pp. \$2.95. The selections in this book range from historic antiquity to the present day, portraying the trials and triumphs both of pioneering individualists of science and of brilliant modern contributors in today's research laboratories. In addition to being sheer good reading, the book is also a means of sharpening the reader's understanding of what Galileo, Newton, Darwin, Einstein, and other great men of science were up to—their dreams, hopes and accomplishments.

HARDY, W. M. *Year of the Rose*. New York 16: Dodd, Mead and Company, 432 Park Avenue, S. 1960. 243 pp. \$3.50. In this book the author has deftly removed the mask from a university faculty, showing the dedicated and the misfits, the venomous competition and the conflicting interests. But the main theme of the story is a secret romance which flourished behind the ivy covered walls and its influences on the lives of those involved.

HARLAND, W. B. *The Earth*. New York 22: Franklin Watts, Inc., 575 Lexington Avenue. 1960. 255 pp. \$4.95. The author explains the nature of the enormous variety of rock substances which go to make up the crust of the earth, from common sandstone to rare diamonds and precious gems, and he describes the evolution of all kinds of animal life, paying special attention to fossil remains. There are useful chapters in which the amateur geologist is given the basic rules of rock-collecting and study.

Paxton Chadwick, noted book-illustrator, provides illustrations that combine the practical function of amplifying the author's text with helpful and explanatory diagrams and presenting artistically magnificent illustrations of the beauties of man's natural surroundings.

ICKIS, MARGUERITE. *The Book of Christmas*. New York 16: Dodd, Mead and Company, 432 Park Avenue, South. 1960. 192 pp. \$3.50. Described herein are many things to do and how to do them in celebration of the twelve days of Christmas for families, schools, etc. There are ideas for parties with folk dances and singing games adapted to Christmas music; as well as carols and Christmas fare, both traditional and modern. Imaginative suggestions are included for tree ornaments, wall decorations, wreaths, bazaars, pageants, puppet shows, simple crafts for gifts and packages as well as Christmas stories and fireside games for the whole family.

IRWIN, K. G. *The Romance of Weights and Measures*. New York 22: The Viking Press, 625 Madison Avenue. 1960. 144 pp. \$3.50. Have you ever wondered how the acre got its size, why the mile has such an odd length as 5,280 feet, why you can get more gasoline in a gallon in Canada than in the United States, why the troy ounce is heavier than the ordinary ounce and our dry quart larger than our liquid quart, why England uses a weight called a

stone, and why the English hundredweight is *not* a hundred-weight? In this book the stories behind such odd facts, and dozens of other equally intriguing ones, are woven into the record of fourteen hundred years of English weights and measures.

JOHNSON, J. R., and A. H. BILL. *Horsemen Blue and Grey*. New York 16: Oxford University Press, 417 Fifth Avenue. 1960. 244 pp. (8¼" x 11") \$10. The Civil War was the last of the great wars in which the cavalry played a dominant role, and both sides numbered among its horsemen some of the most glamorous and daring figures of the war. This handsome book tells of their exploits through a panorama of pictures and narrative based on the words and deeds of the men themselves and on the photographs and sketches of the artists who were on the scene. It was the Confederacy, with its "enterprising wild horsemen of the South," which was the first to recognize the aggressive possibilities of the cavalry for use in scouting and raiding.

KENNEDY, MARGARET. *A Night in Cold Harbor*. New York 11: The Macmillan Company, 60 Fifth Avenue. 1960. 230 pp. \$3.95. This historical novel is set in early nineteenth century England and is the story of a young aristocrat who was born with a silver spoon in his mouth and eventually gags on it. A central thread in the narrative is the black issue of child labor, which, together with other contemporary evils suffered by the working class, resulted in rebellious, nomadic hordes of "Walking People," ragged, gypsy-like outcasts with a highly developed spy system and a rigid social code of their own. To young Dickie Cottar, who has taken to the roads and the rough fellowship of the Walking People, his natural father is a natural enemy. The bridging of this chasm between father and son is the heart of the story.

KRONENBERGER, LOUIS, editor. *The Best Plays of 1959-1960*. New York 16: Dodd, Mead and Company, 432 Park Avenue, S. 1960. 435 pp. \$6. The new feature of this year's *Best Plays* volume is a section devoted to Off Broadway, which contains selections from the Best Off Broadway play, *The Connections*, and a partial listing of the outstanding Off Broadway productions. The Ten Best Plays include: *The Tenth Man*, *Five Finger Exercise*, *The Andersonville Trial*, *The Deadly Game*, *Caligula*, *Toys in the Attic*, *The Best Man*, *Duel of Angels*, *A Thurber Carnival*, and *Fiorello!*

LA FARGE, OLIVER. *The American Indian*. New York 20: Golden Press, Inc., 630 Fifth Avenue. 1960. 215 pp. \$5.99. This is the story of the American Indians who came to this country from Siberia and who really discovered America. Here in text and pictures—many in brilliant color—is the story of their life extending back through many thousands of years. Here are studies of their life, their customs, their art, and their amusements; stories of the Iroquoians, the wigwam people, the westerner farmers, the old settlers, the great open spaces, their religion. Today there are about 450,000 "Federal" Indians in the United States, including the Aleuts and the Eskimos in Alaska. New York has about 10,000; Oklahoma, more than 110,000; Arizona about 75,000; New Mexico and Alaska, about 50,000 each; the Dakotas and adjacent states, about 20,000; and California, over 17,000. They are also found in Oregon, Washington, Nevada, Idaho, Montana, Wisconsin, and Minnesota.

LAMBERT, R. D., special editor. *Religion in American Society*. Philadelphia: The American Academy of Political and Social Science, 3937 Chestnut Street. 1960 (Nov.). 220 pp. \$2. This November issue is composed of four major parts comprised of 14 articles. The major divisions are: Trends; Past

and Present (3 articles); The New Role of the Laity (3 articles); Church and Secular Affairs (4 articles); and Division and Unity (4 articles).

Latin Workshop Experimental Materials, Book 1. Ann Arbor: The University of Michigan Press. 1953. 300 pp. This book, edited by members of a Latin Workshop under the direction of Waldo E. Sweet, is a students introduction to Latin.

LE FEVRE, ROBERT. *This bread is mine.* Milwaukee 2, Wisconsin: American Liberty Press, 161 West Wisconsin Avenue. 1960. 408 pp. \$6.50. This book draws a decisive line between the philosophy of individualism and socialism. Those who accept the author's premises can gauge their own political and economic sophistication. The author traces the socialist movement through the early taboos, the *Republic* of Plato, and the modern triple entente of the socialist phalanx.

He reviews the rise of individualism through the American revolution and the moral premise on which it is based. The author opposes socialism totally. His assumptions will cause many of conservative bent to re-evaluate their reliance upon political means to further the cause of freedom. In his view, the moral man will not employ coercion or violence in order to accomplish his objectives.

This book is a study devoted to Freedom. The concepts it expresses serve to shatter man's age-old faith in "might makes right" (from the bloodletting on the battlefield to the majority at the polls). It offers a combination of common sense, extensive research, and deep insight—and it probes deeply into the true nature of man and the economic and moral facts of life.

Lessons in Vocabulary. Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Press. 1956. 154 pp. This is a course prepared by the English Language Institute Staff of the University with Robert Lado, director, and Charles C. Fries, consultant. It is primarily used with students of English whose native language is Spanish. The vocabulary lessons treat in general the lexical matter of English. The course is aimed at the average student whose language is still limited.

LOEBSACK, THEO. *Our Atmosphere.* New York 22: New American Library of World Literature, Inc., 501 Madison Avenue. 1960. 208 pp. 50¢. An account of the earth's atmosphere—its spectacular natural phenomena, its riddles, wonders, and effects on life and the world. It includes 16 pages of illustrations.

LURANI, COUNT GIOVANNI. *Nuvolari.* New York 16: William Morrow and Company, 425 Park Avenue, S. 1960. 223 pp. \$5. Tazio Nuvolari—whose name is synonymous with the frantically exciting races of the thirties—was a man consumed by a passion for speed. From his earliest years he lived for the thrill of racing, and for thirty triumphant years he drove the world's fastest cars to victory time after time in the most famous races.

MARTIN, R. G., and M. D. STONE. *Money, Money, Money.* Chicago 80: Rand McNally and Company, P. O. Box 7600. 1960. 223 pp. (8-3/4" x 12") \$7.50. Here Wall Street sits for its portrait—a brilliant likeness done in words and revealing photographs—that presents this greatest of money marts as it is today, and as is seldom seen even by those who know it best.

What becomes of the money you and millions of others are investing in stocks or commodities? How does the money flow from your wallet through this financial labyrinth to pay for the securities you purchase? Here the story is told in detail, a quick-moving, fascinating story of a fabulously organized market place where billions of dollars change hands, where tens of thousands

of transactions take place, where the money never stops and the dream never ends—the dream that if you pick the right stocks at the right time, you will get rich, rich, rich!

For the first time you are taken in picture and story behind closed doors to view the inner workings of *The Street*. You see not only the smooth-running and complicated mechanics of processing your order to buy or sell, but you see also how the money managers think and plan and choose; how the big brokerage houses decide which stocks they think will make money and why; the role of the big banks in the life of *The Street*; the calculated risk of speculation and greater profit in the little-known commodity market; the reasons and research of the men who have helped boom mutual funds; the essential function of the securities specialists, analysts, and raters.

McCORMICK, WILFRED. *Too Many Forwards*. New York 18: David McKay Company, Inc., 119 West 40th Street. 1960. 179 pp. \$3. This is an intimate, inside picture of a desperate coach at work. Far more important, however, than merely the drive to win are the lessons in living itself, which are skillfully interwoven in the story as the characters move in and out of the hard-fought games.

McGEE, D. H. *The Pearl Pendant Mystery*. New York 16: Dodd, Mead and Company, 432 Park Avenue, South. 1960. 185 pp. \$3. Joan Sawyer, returning to boarding school as a senior V.I.P., and Angela Black are assigned an unhappy new girl as a roommate. Undereneath Matilda Green's apparent homesickness, Joan detects another problem which is solved only after heartaches for her, too.

MEYER, ROBERT JR. *The Stars and Stripes, Story of World War II*. New York 18: David McKay Co., 119 West 40th Street. 1960. 512 pp. \$5.95. This was the war as it was lived by millions of Americans in uniform. It is the kind of diary many men and women might wish they had kept—not only to satisfy their own nostalgic impulses, but also to satisfy their growing youngsters who would like to know where their parents were during World War II and what they did. Here are the top stories by the top combat correspondents—Irwin Shaw, Herb Mitgang, Bill Hogan, Klaus Mann, Jack Foisie, Bill Brinkley, Ernie Pyle, and many others—connected by bridging material by the editor.

MONTGOMERY, RUTHERFORD. *The Odyssey of an Otter*. New York 20: Golden Press, Inc., 630 Fifth Avenue. 1960. 124 pp. \$2.50. Here is a new world—the dramatic, day-to-day world of creatures of the wild. It is a world filled with struggles, dangers, enemies, and excitement. But for the carefree otter, Flash, it is a world of fun and play—until he suddenly finds himself separated from his family. Then he has much to learn.

Weecha the Raccoon. New York 20: Golden Press, Inc., 63 Fifth Avenue. 1960. 124 pp. \$2.50. During a storm in a forest, a mother raccoon loses two of her three babies, and only Weecha is left. Soon, however, Weecha finds a new companion—Nubbin, an abandoned puppy. The mother raccoon accepts the puppy as though he were one of her own offspring. Together Weecha and Nubbin begin to learn the ways of wild creatures—hunting, fighting, outwitting their enemies—with the mother raccoon always nearby to rescue them from serious danger. But then Weecha and Nubbin are captured by a trapper. For the first time the two young animals are on their own—swept up into exciting adventures in which they need all the courage and cunning they have learned.

NELSON, W. H., and F. E. VANDIVER. *Fields of Glory*. New York 10: E. P. Dutton and Company, 300 Park Avenue, South. 1960. 316 pp. (8" x 11") \$10. Seldom before has any aspect of American history been covered with the authority, pace, excitement and color of this superb volume. Far from being just another picture book, this is a first-rate, compact history of American land warfare from King Philip's War, when a series of massacres almost drove the settlers from New England, to the Korean conflict.

To avoid the confusion of a strictly chronological arrangement of wars and battles, the authors have presented their material by the *nature* of the conflicts. The first section is devoted to wars of "Liberty and Union," and covers the colonial wars, the Revolution, the War of 1812, the War for Texan independence, and the Civil War. These pages show graphically the growth of America's army from a group of raw recruits to a trained fighting force. The Battle of Alamo and other high points of these conflicts are re-created with stirring authenticity.

NEVINS, A. J. *The Young Conquistador*. New York 16: Dodd, Mead and Company, 432 Park Avenue, South. 1960. 271 pp. \$3. Through the eyes of a youth, the great names of the Conquest came alive—Hernando Cortes, Dona Marina, Pedro de Alvarado, and the lordly Montezuma. Here is the story of the end of a great civilization, told with the historical accuracy typical of this author, but from a fresh viewpoint.

UGHTON, FREDERICK. *The Aces*. New York 16: G. P. Putnam Sons, 210 Madison Avenue. 1960. 384 pp. \$4.95. At the beginning of World War I the military potential of the airplane was completely unknown. Even the most imaginative predicted little more than aerial photography and perhaps a slight harrying of troop movements. Yet as the war progressed the battle for the skies produced a group of daredevils who risked their necks in flimsy machines and dedicated themselves to combat with a romantic intensity unknown since the disappearance of the medieval knight. *The Aces* tells the stories of the hardy men who converted the skies over France and Germany into a modern jousting field.

PARK, M. W. *Front Door Lobby*. Boston 8: Beacon Press, 25 Beacon Street. 1960. 288 pp. \$4. This book tells about the woman suffrage campaign in Washington which culminated in passage of the 19th Amendment. From 1917 to 1920, Maud Wood Park was head of the devoted group of women who were mobilized to buttonhole Senators and Representatives, work with Congressional committees, provide information, persuade the reluctant, and encourage allies. These were not the suffragettes who made sensational headlines, but women who worked with diligence and dignity—and who finally won a stubborn Congress to their cause.

PECK, R. F., and R. J. HAVIGHURST, et. al. *The Psychology of Character Development*. New York 16: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 440 Park Avenue, South. 1960. 297 pp. This book deals with the development of moral character in a group of typical American children. The study was made with a wide variety of psychological methods ranging from interviews and formal objective tests to sociometric and projective tests. These were used to get at underlying elements in the personality which gave regularity and stability to moral behavior. A modern theory of moral development is given, and an attempt is made to provide a systematic theory of character development based on, and tested by, data on children and young people.

An important characteristic of this study was its combination of projective test methods, such as the TAT and Rorschach test, with the more objective methods of testing and observation. The two types of research have been effectively combined to give a consistent picture of moral development, and to provide the basis for a general theory.

PHILLIPS, MARY V. *World Geography for High Schools*. Philadelphia 7: John C. Winston Company, 1010 Arch Street. 1960. 512 pp. This book provides a comprehensive study of the geography of the world. It is composed of 42 chapters organized into eight units. These units are titled: World Patterns, North America, South America, Europe, Africa, Asia, Pacific Regions, and Polar Regions. It contains 68 maps and many illustrations, pictures, graphs, tables, charts and diagrams in black and white, and in color. Each chapter has suggestions on things to know, things to do, and books to read.

POLLACK, PHILIP. *Careers and Opportunities in Science*. New York 10: E. P. Dutton and Company, 300 Park Avenue, South. 1960. 194 pp. \$3.95. Opening with a broad survey of the tremendous impact of science in our modern world, the author points out how vastly career opportunities have expanded and grown, and how in the 60's the need for scientists in virtually all fields will continue to increase. With scrupulous detail, he examines the possibilities in the fields of chemistry, physics, atomic power production, geology, biology, conservation, and medical research. Of special interest, there is a chapter devoted solely to career opportunities for women. Invaluable appendices list salaries predominating in various scientific fields; scientific courses offered at American colleges and universities; and science courses offered by the Armed Services.

PROKOSCH, FREDERIC. *The Asiatics*. New York 22: New American Library of World Literature, Inc., 501 Madison Avenue. 1960. 352 pp. 75¢. The strange and romantic adventure of a penniless young American who hitchhiked his way across the continent of Asia from Beirut to the border of China.

Rand McNally *Book of Nations*. Chicago 80: Rand McNally and Company, P. O. Box 7600. 1960. 96 pp. (13½" x 10"). \$4.95 cloth; \$3.95 laminated paper over boards. This book is organized by continents. The countries within each continent are alphabetically arranged. The book contains a map, capital, largest cities, population, world rank, elevation, form of government, principal language and religion, monetary unit, dollar value, area and location, general topography, climate, and principal products of each country. Illustrated with pictures in color.

RASMUSEN, HENRY. *Printmaking with Monotype*. Philadelphia 39: Chilton Company—Book Division, 56th and Chestnut Streets. 1960. 192 pp. \$7.50. This book on the monotype or monoprint is long overdue, presenting as it does a complete history of the subject from Castiglione, the father of the technique, down to contemporary times, and describing numerous methods and materials for its use. Beginning with the simplest approach—the application of a layer of ink onto a piece of glass, incising lines in this with a pointed stick, and pulling a print from it—the author goes on to outline in word and picture step-by-step details of many other ways of working with the process, both in its pure state and in combination with other media.

REEDER, COLONEL RED. *The Story of the War of 1812*. New York 16: Duell, Sloan and Pearce, Inc., 124 East 30th Street. 1960. 181 pp. \$3.95. This is the least known but perhaps most exciting war in our history. Colonel Reeder brings those days of national disgrace and glory back to life: the heroic

days of America's great sailors—in defeat at Boston Harbor, in victory at Lake Erie. The fiery day at Sackett's Harbor when Jacob Brown turned defeat into victory. The fantastic day before New Orleans when Andrew Jackson, Jean Lafitte, and a motely army of Regulars, Indians, and pirates routed the Redcoats.

ROLLETT, A. P. *Companion to School Mathematics*. New York 18: Longmans, Green and Company, Inc., 119 West 40th Street. 1960. 302 pp. \$6. This is not a textbook but a book which explores a pleasurable side of mathematics. It is a mine of information for anyone engaged in the study or teaching of mathematics. It was written by a teacher who knew from experience that digressions into history, etymology, paradoxes, and glimpses of the way ahead pay handsome dividends. One of the secrets of his success as a teacher was that the interest of his pupils, even the mathematical duffers, was aroused by the expectation of interesting sidelights on the subject. This is a book *par excellence* for any teacher wishing to enrich the content of his lessons, while pupils can dip into it with the certainty of finding something interesting.

ROSKILL, S. W. *White Ensign, the British Navy at War, 1939-1945*. Annapolis: United States Naval Institute. 1960. 480 pp. \$4.50. This is the story of great seamen and warriors facing their biggest challenge in two centuries. Hunting their foes beneath the sea, on its surface, and in the air above, the officers and men of the Royal Navy frequently enough encountered crashing defeat. But in the end, their victories counted for more than their defeats. In company with the United States and other navies, they returned to the seas the peace that Hitler had smashed.

Theirs was no local war. It was a war for the world, and it was fought wherever there was salt water enough for a ship to float: in the greybearded North Atlantic, the smoking cold Arctic, the steaming Red Sea, the bright Mediterranean, the broad, desolate Indian Ocean, the jungle-bordered Bay of Bengal, and the enormous Pacific.

RUTTENBERG, H. J. *Self-Developing America*. New York 16: Harper and Brothers, 49 East 33rd Street. 1960. 270 pp. \$4.50. As a fourteen-year-old boy from Nemacolin, Pennsylvania, the author witnessed the horrors of the Mather mine explosion—a disaster of man's making, resulting from avoidable corporate practices. From that time on, he developed the capacity to fight, using his creative energy to help man to save himself. As a crusader in the struggle for equality of opportunity, he has had to taste tear gas and dodge bullets. In the course of this struggle, he has had the rare experience of being both a union leader and a corporation executive—first as research director of the United Steelworkers of America and later as president of Stardrill-Keystone Company.

SAUNDERS, W. C. *Daughters of Dakota*. Caldwell, Idaho: The Caxton Printers, Ltd., 1960. 184 pp. \$3.50. By 1888 the Crawfords had lived for three years in the little gray house on the Dakota prairie. Papa had taken up a homestead and tree claim and was working hard to make a success of his farming efforts. Peggy, the oldest of the daughters, was eleven; Molly, the rebellious one, was nine; and Trudy, the delicate one, was seven. And there was Mama, who remembered the comforts of the old homestead in Minnesota. Life was hard on the Dakota prairies in those years, but the children found compensations—fluffy baby chicks to cuddle, kittens and puppies to love, spring gardens and growing fields of flax to watch.

SHOENFELT, J. F. *Designing and Making Handwrought Jewelry*. New York 36: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 330 West 42nd Street. 1960. 184 pp. \$4.95. This book makes it easy for anyone to follow the step-by-step processes of designing and producing attractive and original jewelry by hand. Simple tools and materials, coupled with a desire to create, are all that you need for success in this fascinating hobby. Starting with projects that can be made from silver wire, the person begins almost at once to gain the satisfaction and pride of making a wide variety of personal adornments. Stressing the importance of design, the author emphasizes the fact that even the least experienced hobbyist will soon discover that he is able to devise striking jewelry. More advanced techniques are gradually introduced, with clear instructions and frequent illustrations and diagrams. The processes explained include polishing, finishing, buffing, annealing, soldering, cutting, drilling, hammering, and shaping.

SLOANE, ERIC. *Return to Taos*. New York 10: Wilfred Funk, Inc., 153 East 24th Street. 1960. 130 pp. (7½" x 10¾"). \$6.50. A return to a well-remembered place, particularly after years of absence, is a unique and sometimes disturbing experience. Recently Eric Sloane and his wife made a nostalgic journey to Taos, New Mexico, following as closely as possible the route he had taken thirty-five years ago when, as a young man in his teens, he left his Long Island home to "make his way in the world."

When he set out for the West in 1925, Eric Sloane headed straight for the Lincoln Highway. His "luggage" was a large flat wooden box (a patented affair from Macy's, which he still has) in which he carried sign-painting equipment, a tin box for food storage, and a change of clothing. His vehicle was a Model T Ford with the word SIGNS painted on a board wedged between the mud-guards.

SMITH, F. S. *Courageous Comrades*. Chicago 80: Rand McNally and Company, P. O. Box 7600. 1960. 200 pp. \$2.75. Boys and girls will find thrilling reading in *Courageous Comrades*. This stirring tale of pioneer life is filled with the spirit of adventure and daring that blazed the trail to American frontiers a hundred years ago. It is a story of the hardy, far-seeing people who carved new towns out of a wilderness—and made America.

SMITH, J. F., and J. R. LINN. *Skill in Reading Aloud*. New York 16: Harper and Brothers, 49 East 33rd Street. 1960. 473 pp. This book is intended for a one-semester beginning course in the oral interpretation of literature. Almost inevitably it is addressed to the intelligent student who doesn't especially like literature and who rather mistrusts interpretation; he has the most to gain from such a course, and he is very much in the majority, not only on campus, but also in committee room and capitol, in laboratory, and on testing ground. Poets may be, as Shelley claims, the unacknowledged legislators of the world; but in the age of the bomb, it behooves us in the liberal arts to incline somewhat toward those whose power is more direct. Fortunately, in helping the nonliterary to read more critically, to experience more deeply, and to communicate more effectively, this textbook may perform an additional and valuable service for the potential major in speech or English: it may provide him with a specific basis for some of the smoother abstractions in his professional jargon. For although the authors offer no radically new approach to their subject, they do make a basic assumption which even the most recent of their predecessors do not.

SNOW, E. R. *New England Sea Tragedies*. New York 16: Dodd, Mead, and Company, 432 Park Avenue, South. 1960. 310 pp. \$4. The author tells the thrilling stories of some of the outstanding maritime dramas which have brought tragedy to the lives of Yankee sailors from the seventeenth century to the present. Sometimes the raging of nature demands its human tribute, and there are tales of shipwreck on the open sea, against foreign shores, as well as in sight of home. Sometimes man himself is his own worst enemy, and murder, cannibalism, mutiny, and enslavement by the Barbary corsairs, who used New England brawn to propel their galleys, have all taken their toll.

SPICER, BART. *The Day Before Thunder*. New York 16: Dodd, Mead and Company, 432 Park Avenue, S. 1960. 348 pp. \$4.50. Young James Coult came to the colonies on a delicate mission: to rescue the faltering New York branch of Coult and Company from an uncle who had—unaccountably—brought it to the brink of failure and disgrace. If James handled his mission well, all of Coult and Company would be his one day. And for a Scot whose family and fortune had nearly perished with the once-bright hopes of the Stuart kings, that would be the realization of a long dream. But in the strange, rough, brawling powder-keg of an American city poised on the edge of revolution, James Coult found another dream, the wildest dream a man might hope to realize—Freedom.

SPORTS ILLUSTRATED, editor. *Sports Illustrated, Book of Football*. Philadelphia 5: J. B. Lippincott Company, East Washington Square. 1960. 86 pp. \$2.75. The book begins with a detailed explanation of how to watch a football game: what to look for, how plays are developed, what sort of defenses are used, and the offensive pass patterns.

Stories from the New Yorker. New York 20: Simon and Schuster, Inc., 630 Fifth Avenue. 1960. 792 pp. \$7.50. This volume contains forty-seven distinguished stories that have appeared in *The New Yorker* magazine since 1950. These stories demonstrate again how *The New Yorker*, year in, year out, brings to our attention not only talented new authors but also new concepts in writing. The editors have ruled out casual or humorous essays, stories that later became chapters of novels, and, so far as possible, stories that formed part of a series. What they have ruled in is a collection of stories, ranging from the hilarious to the tragic, and varied in style, background, and theme.

SWEET, W. E., editor. *Latin Workshop Experimental Materials*. Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Press. 1956. 306 pp. This is a collection of Latin prose and poetry gathered from twenty centuries that has been prepared as an acceptable substitute for Caesar. This material is the result of the co-operative efforts of 21 Latin teachers in a Latin Workshop at the University of Michigan summer session in 1953.

THOMAS, RICHARD. *Metalsmithing*. Philadelphia 39: Chilton Company—Book Division, 56th and Chestnut Streets. 1960. 187 pp. \$7.50. This comprehensive book covers the techniques, knowledges, and skills required of the contemporary metalsmith whether he be student, practicing professional, or hobbyist. The scale of the objects with which the book is concerned lies, with some exceptions, about midpoint between jewelry and monumental metalwork, in the substantial belief that the metalworker must adjust his scale and exercise his aesthetic responsibility in the design, execution, and eventual evaluation of his object consistent with his individual requirement. The specific metalworking skills discussed fall into three major categories: raising and forming, joining, and surface treatments.

Thomas Jefferson and His World. New York 20: Golden Press, Inc., 630 Fifth Avenue. 1960. 155 pp. \$3.79. This book tells about the most important things that Jefferson did in his long and active life, but, most of all, it tells about him as a person, recapturing the man and his times in words and pictures. Since he was a many-sided person, something in him will appeal to practically everybody, regardless of age or locality. This book is a colorful introduction to him and his world, and by means of its readers get acquainted with one of the most interesting men who ever lived.

VAN WESEP, H. B. *Seven Sages.* New York 18: Longmans, Green and Company, Inc., 119 West 40th Street. 1960. 450 pp. \$6.95. In *Seven Sages*, Dr. van Wesep furnishes a definite answer to the assertion that there exists no coherent body of American philosophy. The author's discussion of our "seven sages"—Benjamin Franklin, Ralph Waldo Emerson, William James, John Dewey, George Santayana, Charles Sanders Peirce, and Alfred North Whitehead—demonstrates, in a manner that is both authoritative and entertaining, how these men formed among them a national philosophy which is as consistent and influential as any of the European systems.

Each of these men contributed to the structure of the philosophy which we know generally as pragmatism, and incorporated into it the special gifts of his own mind and his own age. For each, the task of philosophy was that of making the world a better place to live in, and it is this strain of practicality which distinguishes American philosophy.

VOOUS, K. H. *Atlas of European Birds.* New York 17: Thomas Nelson and Sons, 19 East 47th Street. 1960. 284 pp. (13¾" x 10"). \$15. Among the many books on birds, the *Atlas of European Birds* is unique in affording a comprehensive zoogeographical survey of all the species of birds breeding in the British Isles and Europe west of the Ural Mountains. It is not only a handsome picture book, but also an authoritative work of reference. The atlas is composed of three elements—text, distribution maps, and photographs, all concordantly directed to the same purpose, the demonstration of how the species of birds discussed have succeeded in maintaining and extending themselves in the world.

The text gives a clear and concise account of each of the 419 species of European breeding birds under the headings faunal type, distribution, habitat, food, nest, movement. It thus supplies an encyclopaedic wealth of information as to their ecological characteristics and enables quick and accurate comparisons to be made between the various species.

The maps, closely linked with the text, give an insight into the zoogeographical problems involved by clearly indicating breeding areas throughout the world. Each item in the text has its individual map.

The plates are not primarily intended as illustrations of aesthetic merit, but as an indispensable complement to the text. To this end, the aim has been always to represent the birds in their characteristic surroundings. The co-operation of numerous well-known photographers from many countries has made possible a survey of the whole range of European birds that is as near complete as can be. The result is a collection of plates which is at once a storehouse of information and a delight to the eye.

WATSON, JANE W. *The Sciences of Mankind.* New York 20: Golden Press, Inc., 630 Fifth Avenue. 1960. 179 pp. \$4.99. This book introduces the ways of thinking and the methods used by social scientists in many different fields. It serves to demonstrate the various kinds of knowledge about man and

society that the social sciences provide. The chapters offer the reader a series of close-up views of work that is representative of activities in various social science disciplines. The book is illustrated with many colored pictures, maps, diagrams, and charts.

WILSON, B. K. *The Lovely Summer*. New York 16: Dodd, Mead and Company, 432 Park Avenue, South. 1960. 192 pp. \$3.25. When Helen and her friend Vanessa painted all the tennis balls at her mother's lawn party in suffragette colors, they mortally offended their local member of Parliament. As punishment, Helen was packed off to London to live with her difficult old aunt—only to find that the aunt was a passive suffragist, and a highly entertaining person to know! The first shots of World War I destroyed the gracious way of life to which Helen was accustomed.

WYCKOFF, JEROME. *The Story of Geology*. New York 20: Golden Press, Inc., 630 Fifth Avenue. 1960. 179 pp. \$4.99. This is the story of our earth and something about the changes that have taken place down through the ages. Here we learn about rocks, volcanoes, erosion, ground water, lakes, rivers, glaciers, earthquakes, minerals, fossils, etc. The book also discusses such sciences as meteorology, geophysics, and paleontology.

ZOSHCHENKO, MIKHAIL. *Izbrannoe*. Ann Arbor: The University of Michigan Press. 1960. 349 pp. \$6. This book, with an introduction and edited by Marc Slonin, contains 69 selected stories. The entire book is written in Russian.

Pamphlets for Pupil-Teacher Use

Air Attack on Forest Fires. Washington 25, D. C.: Superintendent of Documents. 1960. 32 pp. 30¢. This illustrated booklet tells of aircraft's part in fighting forest fires.

The Annual Report of Burbank Schools. Burbank, California: Burbank United School District, Office of the Superintendent, 245 East Magnolia Blvd. 1959-1960. 34 pp. The superintendent's annual report discusses many phases of the operation of the school system. Very readable for board members and school patrons.

The Baldwin-Whitehall Community. Pittsburgh 36: C. Paul Clark, Principal, The Baldwin High School, 4653 Clairton Boulevard. 1960. 92 pp. 60¢. This booklet, edited by the Senior Problems of Democracy Classes of this school, presents a history of the community, information about and a list of the elected and appointed officers (with information about each) of the nation, states, county, and local community for whom the local citizens vote; local building and zoning regulations; location of each local election district; an index of streets in the community; a list of local service organizations and officers; information about all the churches; a short history of the school board members and administrative personnel; information on teacher tenure, guidance, substitute teachers, salary schedule, a listing of schools and location of each, home-bound instruction, school bus service, a detailed financial report for the school district; a break-down of the occupational status of adults represented by high-school students by percentage; church affiliation by percentage; foreign languages spoken by students; birthplace by state and county of students and parents; and much other information. This, without a doubt, provided realistic learning experiences for the students who prepared this publication.

BAUMGARTNER, B. B. *Helping the Trainable Mentally Retarded Child*. New York 27: Teachers College, Bureau of Publications, Columbia University. 1960. 85 pp. \$1. A handbook for teachers, parents, and administrators.

Berlin, *City Between Two Worlds*. Washington 25, D. C.: Superintendent of Documents. 1960. 22 pp. 20¢. Discusses the problems encountered by West Berlin and the future of Germany.

BERN, H. A., editor. *New Directions in Audio-Visual Communications*. Bloomington, Indiana: Division of Research and Field Services, Indiana University. 1960. 83 pp. \$1.25. This bulletin acquaints the reader with the present-day discussion within the field of audio-visual communication as reflected in the thought and activities of some of the staff members of the Audio-Visual Center at Indiana University.

BETTS, E. A. *Types of Reading Measures*. Haverford, Pennsylvania: The Betts Reading Clinic, Division of Research and Publications, 257 West Montgomery Avenue. 1960. 6 pp. 35¢. Discusses uses of reading tests.

CRS *Audio-Visual Catalog--Upper Grades*. Brooklyn 13: CRS, Department 61, 1078 St. John's Place. 1961. 32 pp. Free to superintendents, principals, and librarians, if requested on official letterheads. Otherwise 25¢. A comprehensive listing of recordings and filmstrips for use in the junior-high-school through college level.

DANFORD, H. G., editor. *School Recreation National Conference Report*. Washington 6, D. C.: American Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W. 1960. 58 pp. \$1.50. This is a report of a national conference held by the American Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation in Washington, D. C. Here is the conference report on leadership, program, community relationships, facilities, finance, and implementation which is of national importance.

Equal Opportunity. Washington 25, D. C.: The President's Committee on Employment of the Physically Handicapped. 1960. 122 pp. Free. The minutes of the annual meeting of this Committee.

EVERETT, J. B.; MARY DOWNING; and HOWARD LEAVITT. *Case Studies in School Supervision*. New York 17: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 383 Madison Avenue. 1960. 64 pp. \$1. Describes case studies that have been made in an effort to bridge the gap between theory and practice of school supervision.

FRITZ, W. G. *The Future of Industrial Raw Materials in North America*. Washington 9, D. C.: National Planning Association, 1606 New Hampshire Avenue, N.W. 1960. 87 pp. \$2. This report projects for the next two decades consumption of 46 principal industrial materials against their available supply in North America. "The significance of these projections for Canada-U.S. trade," the report points out, is that "the United States will rely to a much greater extent upon Canadian sources of industrial raw materials." The largest increases will be in iron ore, natural gas, nickel, and asbestos, but Canada will also export "greatly enlarged amounts" of petroleum and petroleum products, natural gas liquids, cobalt, copper, lead, zinc, sulphur, lumber, plywood, pulpwood, wood pulp, paper, and paperboard. Canada will become dependent to a greater extent upon U.S. supplies of coal, molybdenum, and phosphate, the report continues. In addition to a great increase in trans-border movement of industrial raw materials during the next two decades, "both countries will . . . become more dependent upon sources of supply outside the North American continent."

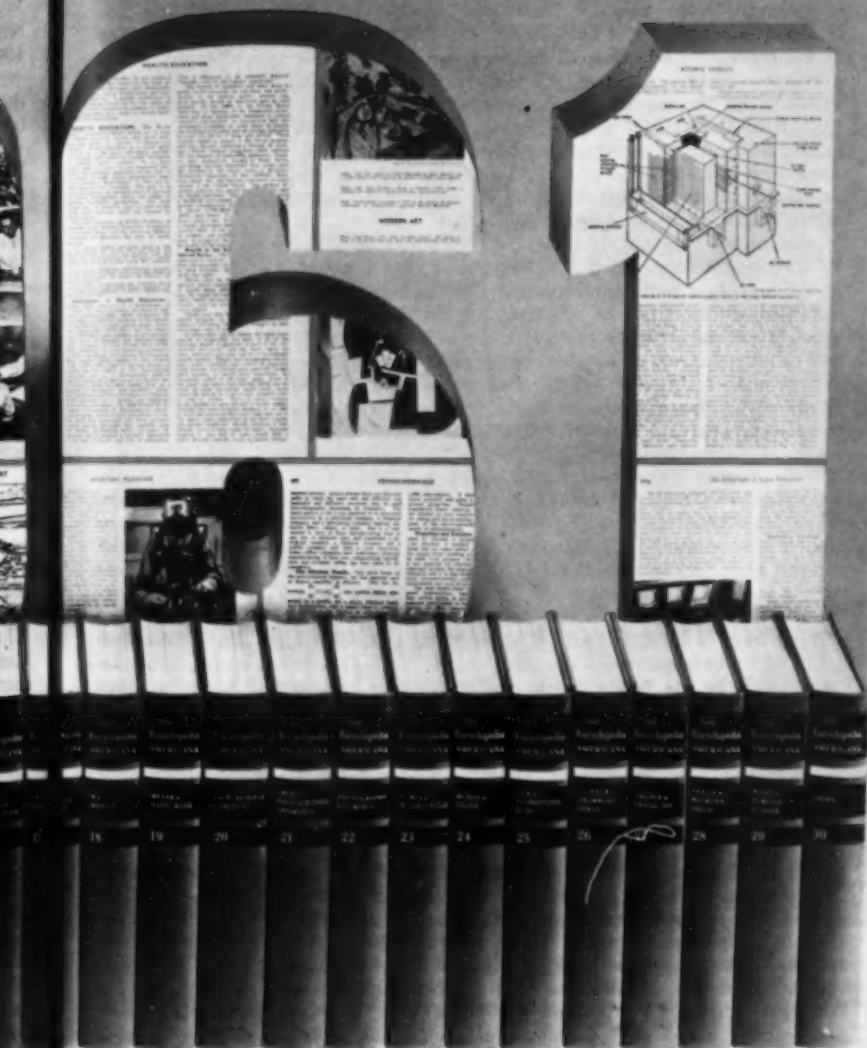


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Funds for Research and Development in Industry 1957. Washington 25, D. C.: Superintendent of Documents. 1960. 129 pp. 65¢. Reports the results of a 1957 survey of industrial research and development which yielded comprehensive data on the magnitude, type, and economic characteristics of research and development in the private industry sector of the economy.

HOLLINSHEAD, B. S., director. *Dentistry in the United States.* Washington 6, D. C.: The American Council on Education, 1785 Massachusetts Avenue, N.W. 1960. 85 pp. \$1. The Commission on the Survey of Dentistry in the United States, appointed by the American Council on Education, discusses status, needs, and recommendations.

How Do Your Gifted Grow . . . ? Detroit 26: Wayne County Board of Education, 400 Woodward Avenue. 1960. Single copies, 50¢; in quantities of five or more sent to the same address, 25¢. This booklet is a guide to the development and evaluation of programs for gifted and talented youth in the elementary and secondary school. It is a product of observation, study, and analysis of crucial elements in planning programs for the gifted as seen by a group of educators in Wayne County. Part I describes work of the Wayne County Study of the Gifted initiated in 1956; Part II contains findings and recommendations; Part III is devoted to criteria for evaluation; and Part IV lists the roster of the committees.

Improving Science and Mathematics Programs in American Schools. Washington 5, D. C.: American Association for the Advancement of Science, 1515 Massachusetts Avenue, N.W., or American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W., Washington 6, D. C. 1960. 41 pp. Free. A report of the Joint Commission on the Education of Teachers of Science and Mathematics.

Job Help for Youth in the Sixties. New York 16: National Committee on Employment of Youth, 419 Park Avenue South. 1950. 20 pp. Presents a blueprint of youth-employment programming in the 1960's based on recommendations made by the White House Conference on Children and Youth held last spring in Washington, D. C.

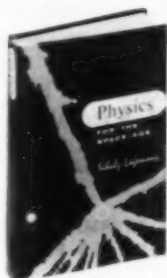
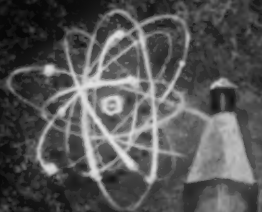
Making Plans for College? Washington 6, D. C.: *Changing Times*, The Kiplinger Magazine, 1729 H Street, N.W. 1960. 23 pp. 25¢. A very helpful reprint. Here are answers to questions on costs, choice of college, scholarships, guidance, and many other questions that parents, counselors, and students need to have.

MEACHER, J. M., editor. *Graflex Audiovisual Digest.* Rochester 2, New York: Graflex, Inc., 3750 Monroe Avenue. 1960. 48 pp. 25¢. Includes some of the more important, authoritative articles on modern audio-visual techniques that have appeared recently in audio-visual publications.

NEA Research Division. *Salary Schedule Maximums for School Administrators, 1960-61, Urban Districts 100,000 and Over in Population.* Research Report 1960-R14. Washington 6, D. C.: National Education Association, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W. November 1960. 47 pp. 75¢. Contains information for the current school year on salary maximums and methods of scheduling for school principals, assistant principals, and various central-office administrative and supervisory officers. Schedules from 105 school systems are reported upon, and excerpts of detailed provisions are quoted from 11 schedules.

Outlook for the Adult Retarded. Willimantic, Connecticut: AAMD Business Office, P. O. Box 96. 1960. 123 pp. \$3. Focuses attention on the needs of the retarded individual.

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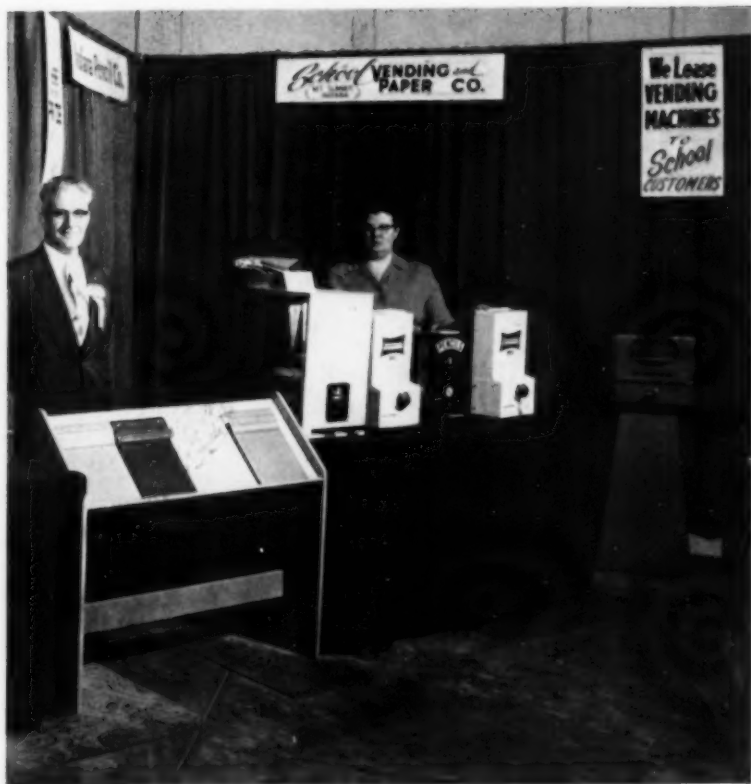


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PASCHAL, ELIZABETH. *Encouraging the Excellent*. New York 22: The Fund for the Advancement of Education, 477 Madison Avenue. 1960. 79 pp. Free. Describes special programs for gifted and talented students.

Preparation in English for College-Bound Students. Boston 16: Executive Director, Commission on English, 183 Commonwealth Avenue. 1960. 8 pp. Gives suggestions for students in the study of high-school English.

Proceedings of the Third Joint Meeting of the Outdoor Recreation Resources Review Commission. Washington 25, D. C.: Superintendent of Documents. 1960. 146 pp. Discusses the role of Federal agencies in meeting the demand of outdoor recreation. This commission was created by an act of Congress as of June 28, 1958. It is composed of 8 Congressional (4 Senators and 4 Representatives) and 7 presidential appointees. Its purpose is to review the Nation's present outdoor recreation resources and opportunities, to forecast those that will be required by the years 1976 and 2000 and to report its findings and recommendations to the President and Congress not later than September 1, 1961.

Publications of the Department of State. Washington 25, D. C.: Superintendent of Documents. 1960. 73 pp. 45¢. A list of Department of State publications released between January 1, 1958 and December 31, 1959.

The Role of Youth in Red Cross. Washington 6, D. C.: The American National Red Cross. 1960. 28 pp. The Youth Study Committee of the American Red Cross makes 10 recommendations for procedural changes in promoting its youth program.

SCHREIBER, MORRIS. *Improving the School Reading Program*. Brooklyn 15: Public School 154, 11th Avenue and Windsor Place. A summary of a series of lessons in reading.

Scientific and Technical Personnel in American Industry. Washington 25, D. C.: Superintendent of Documents. 1960. 66 pp. 45¢. This report presents the major findings of a survey of the employment of scientific and technical personnel in private industry as of January 1959.

Second Thoughts on Terminal Education. Boston 16: Massachusetts Council for Public Schools, 16 Arlington Street. 1960. 20 pp. 35¢ per copy; orders in excess of 25, 30¢ per copy. A collection of essays concerning the non-college-bound student.

The Small College in the 60's. Washington 9, D. C.: The Council for the Advancement of Small Colleges, 1818 R Street, N.W. 1960. 40 pp. This report of a conference illustrates the kind of service which corporation and foundation support is underwriting for colleges that are members of this Council.

SOUTHWORTH, CONSTANT and W. W. BUCHANAN. *Changes in Trade Restrictions Between Canada and the United States*. Washington 9, D. C.: National Planning Association, 1606 New Hampshire Avenue, N.W. 1960. 75 pp. \$2. Although the "past quarter century has been a period of substantial trade liberalization" in the policies of the United States and Canada, "the movement towards trade liberalization has evidently lost momentum during recent years," according to a statement of the Canadian-American Committee. The Committee points out that "in a number of instances some new barriers have been imposed." However, the report asserts, "such recent trimmings have not . . . seriously undermined a quarter of a century of progress in Canadian-American trade relations. Five trade agreements, substantial declines in tariff levels, and joint leadership in the creation and development of

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State Child-Labor Standards. Washington 25, D. C.: Superintendent of Documents. 1960. 210 pp. 60¢. A state-by-state summary of laws affecting the employment of minors under 18 years of age.

State Curriculum Guides for Science, Mathematics, and Modern Foreign Languages. Washington 25, D. C.: Superintendent of Documents. 1960. 28 pp. 25¢. An annotated bibliography.

The Story of Prices. Wilmington, Delaware: E. I. du Pont de Nemours and Company. 1960. 32 pp. Shows how the price structure evolved to meet the growing and changing needs of our people and points out steps that can be taken to bring better values in the years to come.

Teaching About the United Nations. Washington 25, D. C.: Superintendent of Documents. 1960. 102 pp. 45¢. Discusses teacher training, programs and syllabi, treatment of United Nations in textbooks and teaching materials for the elementary and secondary levels, and out-of school educational activities relating to the UN system. Every four years the Economic and Social Council of the United Nations requests a report from each Member State telling how the United Nations and its work are being made known to the citizenry. This is that report, covering from January 1, 1956, through December 31, 1959.

Teaching Guide for the Earth and Space Science Course. Washington 6, D. C.: National Aviation Education Council, 1025 Connecticut Avenue, N.W. 1960. 112 pp. \$1. This teaching guide, prepared by the Pennsylvania State Department of Public Instruction for its state schools, is planned to be both comprehensive and of an advanced nature. While adaptable to other levels, the department suggests the tenth, eleventh, or twelfth grade if general science is offered in grade 8 and biology in grade 9. A full-year's course.

Today's Woman in Tomorrow's World. Washington 25, D. C.: Superintendent of Documents. 1960. 138 pp. 50¢. Upon the occasion of its 40th Anniversary, the Women's Bureau held a conference in June 1960 to celebrate the accomplishments of women as workers, homemakers, and citizens and to plan future goals. This is a report of the conference discussions and speeches. The comments on such subjects as job preparation and employment opportunities should be of value in vocational guidance and counseling. Of particular interest are the discussions held during the morning and afternoon sessions of June 2. Women in selected age groups questioned a panel of representatives from education, industry, and labor about situations and problems they may have to face in the future world of work.

The Unity of the Professions. Newark, New Jersey: Newark College of Engineering. 1960. 51 pp. Five addresses by representatives of art, education, law, medicine, religion.

What Do You Know About Your Tulsa Schools? Tulsa, Oklahoma: Tulsa Public Schools, Office of the Superintendent. 1960-1961. 23 pp. An excellent brochure which, by questions and answers, provides much valuable information whereby school patrons can secure a better understanding of the organization and operation of their schools.

WCOTP Annual Report. Washington 6, D. C.: World Confederation of Organizations of the Teaching Profession, 1227 Sixteenth Street, N.W. 1960. 96 pp. 50¢. Includes a summary of the proceedings of the Assembly of Delegates in session in Amsterdam, and the Netherlands, August 1-6, 1960. The brochure appears in English, French, and Spanish editions.



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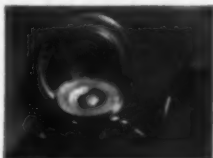
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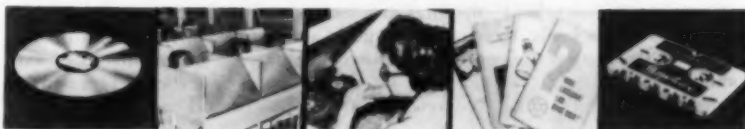
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News Notes

RHODE ISLAND REQUIRES DRIVER EDUCATION

Governor Christopher Del Sesto of Rhode Island signed into law, on May 12, an amendment of and addition to Chapter 31-10 of the General Laws, entitled "Operators' and Chauffeurs' Licenses." This amendment provides for 30 hours of classroom instruction for applicants or prospective applicants not more than 25 years of age for a first operator's license, instruction to be given by a teacher certified by the department of education. In addition, it provides that after the first day of July 1961, no operator's original license shall be issued to any person not more than 25 years of age unless the applicant shall have successfully completed a course of instruction as provided above, or a similar course of instruction recognized by the department of education as the equivalent. An applicant who has held an operator's license in another jurisdiction for one year shall be exempt from this provision. An appropriation of \$30,000 was made to carry out this act for the first year.—*Action for Safety, National Commission on Safety Education.*

GUIDANCE IN THE SECONDARY SCHOOL

A new series of guidance booklets for use in schools has been published by Science Research Associates (259 East Erie Street, Chicago 11, Illinois). The booklets, condensations of SRA's regular guidance publications, are designed primarily to serve as resource materials in classroom settings. Following is a list of these booklets in the new condensation series: *You and Your Abilities; Exploring Your Personality; Study Your Way Through School; What Employers Want; Where Are Your Manners?; Your Behavior Problems; Looking Ahead to Marriage; Getting Along with Others; Facts About Alcohol; and Facts About Drug Addiction.*

SCHOOLS WELCOME VISITORS

The Philadelphia Public Schools welcomed some 125,000 visitors during the observation of American Education Week, presenting various programs under the general theme, "Strengthen Schools for the 60's." Most schools throughout the city held open house at least one day during the week—many of them inviting parents to attend regular class sessions with their sons and daughters. Some schools held both day and evening activities for students, their families, and others of the neighborhood. Technical high schools had shops open and in operation for inspection by visitors. Exhibits of work done by students in the several fields of study and in arts and crafts were arranged both in the schools and in neighboring stores and community centers.

Meetings also were held—meetings at which school authorities explained the functions of the schools, their offerings, goals and problems; meetings to stage demonstration lessons and answer questions submitted by the citizens of the community; meetings to present specific phases of the educational program or curriculum; and individual conferences between parent and teacher to discuss pupil progress.

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Several of the schools scheduled programs before or after the official Education Week observance, November 6 to 12, for convenience, particularly to bring parents to the school soon after the time first reports were issued and to discuss the new annual reorganization program immediately after the distribution of brochures on the policy.—*School News and Views*

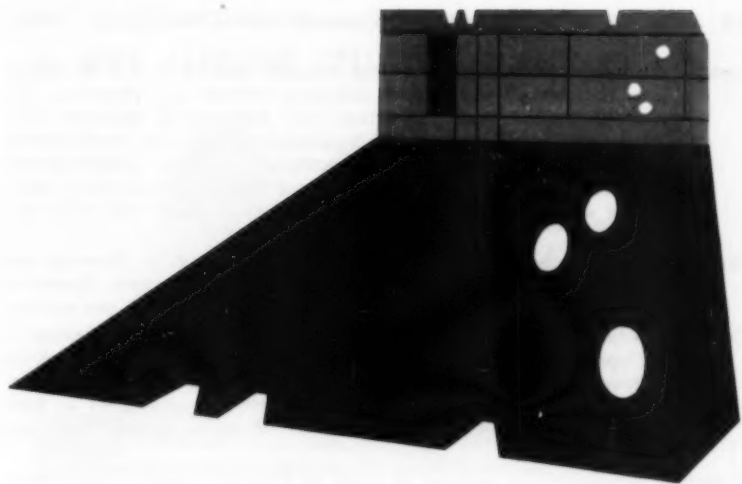
PARENTS ATTEND CLASSES AND RECEIVE REPORT CARDS

On the evening of November 3, the teachers of Riverside School entered their classrooms to be met by many new faces. Parents had been invited to attend Visitation Night and become acquainted with their children's activities. After a brief orientation from the home-room teachers, the parents followed the class schedule for a typical day of school, spending fifteen minutes in each of the classrooms. Each teacher discussed the materials, methods, and objectives of the various classes. At the end of the evenings' activities, parents returned to the home rooms to receive their children's report cards. The participants were quite enthusiastic about Visitation Night and felt that it was helpful in giving them a better understanding of the school.—*Frank Marino*, Principal of Riverside Junior High School, Morgantown, West Virginia

WANTED—FRENCH SPEAKING EDUCATORS

UNESCO is undertaking to recruit internationally 500 teachers for service in the Republic of the Congo (Leopoldville). Recruitment is for French-Speaking educators in Primary, Secondary, Technical, and Teacher Training Areas for service in the Republic of Congo. *Applicants must possess a command of French sufficiently fluent to enable them to conduct classroom instruction easily in that language. Persons not positively possessing this degree of fluency cannot be considered.* The following posts have thus far been announced by UNESCO, and additional specific requirements are expected to be forthcoming:

- CONGO 1 Education Officer for general education to advise on organization and work in General Education Division within primary and secondary schools and inspection sections. *Qualifications:* Practical experience classroom work as inspector of schools or teacher-training college, administrative experience. *Base Salary:* US \$8,750 per annum.
- CONGO 2 Specialist in training of primary teachers within Division of Training and Higher Education. Responsible for planning and administration of primary-school teachers. *Qualifications:* Experience primary-school teaching and training of primary-school teachers. *Base Salary:* US \$7,300 per annum.
- CONGO 3 Teacher training specialist secondary education within Division of Training of Higher Education. Responsible for planning and administration of teacher training in secondary schools. *Qualifications:* Experience of secondary-school teaching and training secondary-school staff. *Base Salary:* US \$7,300 per annum.
- CONGO 4 Education Officer responsible for training of staff and higher education. *Qualifications:* Experience as principal in an Institute of Education or Teacher Training College, and in administration of examinations. *Base Salary:* US \$8,750 per annum.



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- CONGO 5 Education Officer for planning, research, and curriculum to advise on organization and work in following sections: (a) planning; (b) documentation and publication; (c) educational statistics; (d) special studies, reports, and educational research; (e) development and revision of curricula; (f) vocational guidance. *Qualifications:* Experience in Institute of Educational Research, curriculum planning and administration of education. *Base Salary:* US \$8,750 per annum.
- CONGO 6 Specialist in educational research within Division of Planning and Research responsible for Research Unit. *Qualifications:* degree in educational research projects. *Base Salary:* US \$7,300 per annum.
- CONGO 7 Administrative assistant as Head of Finance and Budget Sections—Department of General Administration. Major responsibility will be financial. *Qualifications:* Experience in financial section of a Ministry of Education or educational authority. Appointment at base salary of US \$4,800 or \$6,000 according to qualifications and experience.
- CONGO 8 Administrative assistant as Head of Personnel section—Department of General Administration. Major responsibility will be recruitment and administration of foreign teaching staff (reception at Leopoldville). *Qualifications:* Experience in personnel work. Appointment at base salary US \$4,800 or \$6,000 according to qualifications and experience.

For the above listed posts incumbents will receive, besides base salary (which is exempt from income tax), \$20 per diem for the entire duration of their mission and \$100 for tropical clothing. All experts selected for these posts will serve at the Ministry of Education in Leopoldville and will be required to give intensive training to Congolese counterpart personnel and staff of the Ministry. Duration of all missions is for one year in the first instance. Incumbents may be granted family allowances where applicable, but under no circumstances will dependents be authorized to accompany experts to the duty station.

American applicants should address Mr. Paul R. Serey, Staffing Management Officer, Office of International Administration, Department of State, Washington 25, D. C. enclosing an experience résumé and evidence of linguistic proficiency. Prior to selection, candidates will be required to pass a full physical examination. Responsibility for the selection of candidates rests with UNESCO headquarters, and not with the Department of State.

1961 AEW THEME

The over-all theme chosen for next school year's (1961-62) AEW observance scheduled for Sunday, November 5—Saturday, November 11, is *Your Schools—Time for a Progress Report*. The daily topics are as follows:

SUNDAY, November 5—*Time To Test Our Convictions*

MONDAY, November 6—*Time To Decide on Essentials*

TUESDAY, November 7—*Time To Work Together*

WEDNESDAY, November 8—*Time To Explore New Ideas*

THURSDAY, November 9—*Time To Salute Good Teachers*

FRIDAY, November 10—*Time To Pay the Price for Excellence*

SATURDAY, November 11—*Time To Look Outside Our Borders*

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The San Francisco, California, Board of Education appointed a Joint Curriculum Survey Committee to evaluate the curriculum of the San Francisco public schools and its effectiveness. This joint committee was composed of faculty members of the University of California and Stanford University. This committee has submitted its report to the Board of Education and the superintendent of schools. The report is quite comprehensive and, in many respects, quite detailed. It made many recommendations for changes. It criticized the state's choosing and determining the textbooks for the first eight grades; it recommended ability grouping, study in depth rather than acceleration, abolition of mid-year promotion, separate curricula, eight 45-minute period instead of seven 50-minute period, differentiated types of diplomas, that the principal of the elementary school substitute for the absent teacher and that the high-school principal and assistant principal teach one class.

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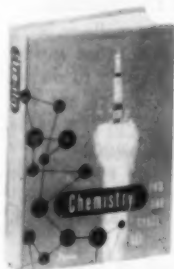
The National Foundation Health Scholarships (800 Second Avenue, New York 17, New York) has established approximately 500 health scholarships, proportioned equally among five health fields: nursing, occupational therapy, physical therapy, medical social work, and medicine. Each 4-year scholarship is worth \$500 a year, or a total of \$2,000. These scholarships are assigned to the 50 states, the District of Columbia, Puerto Rico, the Virgin Islands, and the Canal Zone on a quota based on population with at least five scholarships for each state—one in each of the five fields. Complete information and application blanks can be secured from the high-school principal or dean or write direct to the address above. Applications must be in the mail prior to April 1.

MASSACHUSETTS EDUCATORS MEET

The fall conference of the Massachusetts Junior High-School Principals' Association met in a "Workshop of the Future." Dean Lester Vander Werf of Northeastern University discussed the importance of the education process in the junior high-school years. Dr. Robert H. Anderson, Harvard University Associate Professor of Education, outlined his thoughts for planning the junior high school of the future. Other subjects ranging from teaching machines to private school were discussed by the educators. Following the all-day workshop, three teachers from the Weston (Massachusetts) Junior High School presented a panel discussion of the entire program. They examined each suggestion for using or improving upon various methods presented by the speakers.

FILM ON FIRE SAFETY

A new film showing teachers and school officials what to do to avert tragedy during the first critical minute after a school fire is discovered has been released by Aetna Casualty and Surety Company. Titled *Seconds to Safety*, the 15-minute, color movie stresses the necessity for evacuating students in a matter of seconds rather than minutes if loss of life is to be avoided. Produced in cooperation with school and fire department officials at Wethersfield, Connecticut, the film details steps of a fire-drill procedure that has enabled one school to evacuate 510 children in just 52 seconds after the alarm sounds. The film points out that smoke and super-heated air, the biggest killers in school fires, can make the atmosphere deadly throughout a building even before flames



Dr. Dan Q. Posin, professor of the physical science school at De Paul University, Chicago, and nationally-known star of CBS-TV, has given his particular genius for refreshing presentation to a new high school text that brilliantly relates the universal laws and principles of chemistry to its space age applications—*Chemistry for the Space Age*, published by J. B. Lippincott Company in January.

Chemistry for the Space Age is a teacher's text. It provides a guide to stimulating presentation that will imbue the high school student with a scientific spirit, lead him to a better understanding of the world in which he lives, let him discover the relation of chemistry to man, nature, and the other sciences, and thrust him into the excitement of new worlds unfolding through the applications of chemistry.

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are widespread, thus increasing the need for a well-organized, thoroughly drilled evacuation plan.

In announcing the new film, Aetna Casualty said it was made in an effort to help schools reduce the number of deaths from school fires. The urgent need for better fire-drill systems is emphasized by a National Fire Protection Association report that, in the Chicago school fire of 1958 in which 95 children and teachers died, 12 minutes elapsed between discovery of smoke and the ringing of the fire alarm.

Seconds to Safety is distributed nationally on a free-loan basis for showings before school, fire department, safety groups, and other community organizations. The film may be obtained by writing to the Information and Education Department, Aetna Casualty and Surety Company, Hartford 15, Connecticut.

HOME ECONOMICS IN THE FUTURE

What's ahead for the schools in an age of change? One general change may be a retreat from so-called "performance subjects" such as home economics to work of more abstract or theoretical nature. So said Dr. James E. Russell, secretary of the Educational Policies Commission, in a speech at a National Education Association conference. Dr. Russell pointed out that much home economics teaching today focuses on certain domestic operations, such as cooking or sewing. In the future, he thinks, these particular items may be taught only in those places where it can be demonstrated the children will never have an adequate model of homemaking if the school does not supply it. Otherwise, he says, the homes and media of communication will supply such teaching, and the school will be free to concentrate on the more important domestic science material in anthropology, psychiatry, sociology, and the growing study of family life.

THE ADVANCED PLACEMENT PROGRAM

The College Entrance Examination Board offers the Advanced Placement Program in the interest of able students; in the interest of secondary schools which enable these students, while still in secondary school, to undertake work on the college level commensurate with their abilities; and in the interest of colleges that welcome incoming students who are thereby prepared for courses more advanced than those usually studied in the college freshman year. Descriptions of the college-level courses in 11 subjects are provided by the Program in its book, the *Advanced Placement Program: Course Descriptions*.

The Advanced Placement Program begins with courses on the college level given in secondary schools to able and ambitious students. A school that wishes to undertake such advanced work does not need to secure permission to do so, but it should be sure that it understands the Program. Teachers who are setting up college-level courses should read the course descriptions in the book, *Advanced Placement Program: Course Descriptions*. Thirteen Advanced Placement Examinations, based upon the courses discussed in the book are offered: English Composition and Literature (one examination), American History, European History, French, Intermediate German, Advanced German, Latin 4, Latin 5, Spanish, Mathematics, Biology, Chemistry, and Physics.

In 1960-61, the examinations will be given during the week of May 15 to May 19 by schools throughout the country. Further information concerning

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the Advanced Placement Program may be obtained from Jack N. Arbolino, Director, Advanced Placement Program, College Entrance Examination Board, 475 Riverside Drive, New York 27, New York.

A PRINCIPALS' WORKSHOP

Prior to the beginning of the school year last fall, the Ferguson-Florissant School District conducted a two-day workshop for principals and administrative staff members. This was a pioneer project for them. Results were gratifying in terms of the new perspective which the participants obtained toward their work.

A summary of the proceedings of the workshop was prepared by the school's director of public relations and distributed in the form of a 28-page mimeographed booklet. The booklet presents many of the things that were said and done at each of the four sessions. At the first session, discussion centered around the topic, "What the Teacher Expects of the Principal." The second session discussed what the administration expects of the principal. "The Principal and Public Relations" occupied the attention of the group during the third session, while the fourth or last session was an informal discussion by all the participants in an effort to evaluate what had been said and done at the first three sessions and to find ways by which the findings could be put into practice.

SALARY MAXIMUMS FOR ADMINISTRATIVE STAFF

According to the NEA Research Division, in its publication *Salary Schedule Maximums for School Administrations 1960-61, Urban Districts 100,000 and Over in Population* (November 1960, 47 pp. 75¢), the following figures represent the median maximum salaries for the indicated administrative officers with master's degrees:

	Median Salary in Dollars Population		Median Salary Index Population	
	100,000 to 499,999	500,000 and Over	100,000 to 499,999	500,000 and Over
Junior High School				
Principal	8,950	10,600	1.45	1.45
Asst. Principal	8,950	9,928	1.22	1.26
Senior High School				
Principal	9,275	11,398	1.54	1.56
Asst. Principal	9,500	11,025	1.29	1.30
Counselor	7,918	8,275	1.07	1.11
Dean	10,000	8,213	1.18	1.18
Head of Dept.	8,241	8,630	1.11	1.11

The NEA Research Division has also released four reports that are of interest to school administrators. These mimeographed reports are: "Teacher Absences and Cost of Substitute Service" (November 1960, 22 pp.), "Special-Subject Teachers in the Elementary Grades" (December 1960, 4 pp.), "Summer-School Employees, Salary-Schedule Provisions, 1960-61" (November 1960, 7 pp.),

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and "Reports on Pupil Progress and Elementary School Promotion Practices" (December 1960, 8 pp.). One copy of each of these four reports may be secured free from the NEA. Also available from the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, a department of the NEA, are two annotated bibliographies. "The Junior High School" by Elizabeth L. Dalton and Curtis P. Ramsey and "Team Teaching" by R. H. Anderson.

A SCIENCE AND MATH WEEKLY

Wesleyan University (Middletown, Connecticut) announces a new weekly science newspaper for senior high-school classes in biology, chemistry, physics, and mathematics. This new weekly (for senior high schools) is a companion publication to *Current Science* (for junior high-school grades), one of the American Education Publications weekly series. It answers the demand of many teachers for bridging the gap between the textbooks and recent developments in science and science instruction. Its editorial staff at Wesleyan combines the efforts and experience of college and university teachers with high-school teachers. The magazine is edited for high-school classes and is also valuable for use in junior college science courses. Scheduled publication is 32 weekly issues during the school year. First issue is dated December 7. The cost per student is 50 cents per semester, or \$1 per school year in class orders of 10 or more copies. The teacher receives a free desk copy and the *Teacher's Editions* with class orders. Send subscriptions and inquiries to Science and Math Weekly, Education Center, Columbus 16, Ohio.

GOALS FOR EDUCATION

The report of the 11-member President Eisenhower Commission on National Goals covers a large number of topics—economics, agriculture, foreign relations, defense. It devotes a chapter to education, but significantly it ties, as well, almost every attainment for the country to adequate quantity and quality education. This, perhaps, is the influence of the backgrounds of five members of the commission, all current or former presidents of major universities. (Chairman of the commission was Henry M. Wriston, president of the American Assembly of Columbia University.) The commission set these specific goals for education: By the end of the decade at least two thirds of the youth in every state should complete 12 years of schooling, and at least one third enter college. Small and inefficient school districts should be consolidated, reducing the total from 40,000 to 10,000. Local school boards should be strengthened. Two-year colleges should be within commuting distance of most high-school graduates, and graduate school capacity must be approximately doubled. Others: every state should have a high-level board of education; teachers' salaries at all levels must be improved; adult education should be expanded to stress education throughout life.—*Education U.S.A.*

WISCONSIN JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS

The Research Committee of the Wisconsin Association of Junior High School Administrators, under the general chairmanship of John J. Hosmanek, Assistant Principal of Lincoln Junior High School in Kenosha, has recently published a mimeographed 31-page report in preliminary form on the junior high schools in Wisconsin. Of the 79 junior high schools in the state, 71 answered the committee's questionnaire. Included in this report are the number of 2-year and 3-year high schools, housing, enrollment, length of school day, length of noon

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period, class organization showing number enrolled in each subject, the core program, and many, many other facts. Copies of this report may be secured from the general chairman listed above. Enclose 10 cents to cover mailing costs.

SCIENCE AND MATHEMATICS INSTITUTES ARE ANNOUNCED

The National Science Foundation, 1951 Constitution Avenue, N.W., Washington 25, D. C., has announced the award of grants totaling about \$9,800,000 to 43 colleges and universities to support Academic Year Institutes for science and mathematics teachers. This will be the sixth year of this program, whose purpose is to help teachers improve their subject matter knowledge through a year's advanced study on a full-time basis. Special emphasis is placed in these institutes on the newer developments in science and mathematics.

Approximately 1,500 experienced junior and senior high-school teachers will attend the institutes during the 1961-62 academic year. Each teacher will pursue a course of study in science or mathematics planned especially for him and conducted by scientists noted both for competence in their fields and for skill in presentation.

The Foundation grants will provide stipends of \$3,000 for each participant, with additional allowances for dependents, books, and travel. Some institutes will provide an additional summer training program to enable teachers more easily to fulfill graduate degree requirements. Supplementary allowances will be provided for teachers participating in this extended program.

Support of these institutes by the National Science Foundation encourages colleges and universities to offer special programs in subject matter instruction for teachers already in service, as well as providing financial support for teachers so that they can undertake advanced studies.

Information and application forms can be obtained from the directors of the individual institutes, NOT from the National Science Foundation. A list of the institutions receiving grants and names of the institute directors may be obtained from the Foundation.—*Higher Education* of American Council on Education

A SCIENTIFIC LECTURE-DISCUSSION SERIES

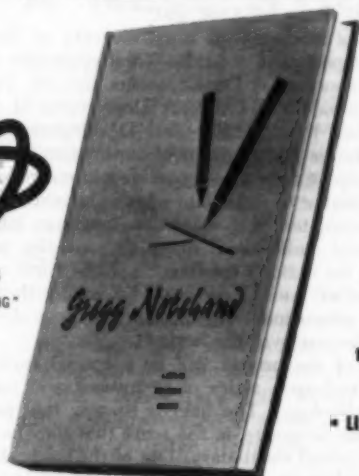
Ten leading American scientists and mathematicians will speak at a new scientific lecture-discussion series for academically talented high-school students this school year at Union Junior College, Cranford, New Jersey. The series is designed to challenge the "gifted" high-school students intellectually and to create an interest in science and mathematics. The series is being offered under a grant to Union Junior College from the Merck Company Foundation. More than 40 high schools have accepted invitations to participate in the series. The program attempts to increase the interest of able students in science and mathematics, and to help make them better over-all students and increase their interest in their high-school studies. High-school students are introduced to the challenging life of the scientist and mathematician; they are informed of the great need for highly trained people, especially in the highly concentrated research area.

This lecture-discussion series is based on a pilot program conducted last year by Union Junior College and the Cranford Board of Education during the 1959-60 academic year. The experimental seminar attracted 60 juniors and seniors from Cranford High School.

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IMPACT OF TECHNOLOGY ON SCHOOLS

The impact of invention and technology on what goes on in the classroom is to be the subject of an extensive study sponsored by the National Education Association made possible by a contract with the U.S. Office of Education under the National Defense Education Act for \$102,980.

James D. Finn, professor of education at the University of Southern California and chairman of its department of audio-visual education and cinema, will direct the study on "Technological Developments and the Teaching Profession." Dr. Finn, who is president of the NEA Department of Audio-Visual Instruction, has been planning the Technological Development Project with the aid of an advisory committee and a group of consultants for more than a year. Its outcome will be a report on technological development and the teaching profession which will endeavor to assimilate what is known about relatively new developments in television, teaching machines, language laboratories, as well as the more conventional audio-visual materials, and the problems and opportunities they create for the nation's teachers. A major effort will be made, Dr. Finn said, to bring together into a new unified teaching theory what has been discovered about the educational significance of these devices and of others which are known to be just over the horizon.

An important by-product of the project will be a special study and report intended to develop an agreed-upon series of definitions and terminology in the field of instructional technology. The field is so new that persons active in it are not speaking the same language, in the sense that they have not developed a consistent, unified technical vocabulary. Out of the study, Dr. Finn said, should come important conclusions bearing on teacher education, teaching techniques, and the construction of school buildings.

Dr. Finn will continue to maintain his principal office at the University of Southern California in Los Angeles. In charge of the project's Washington office will be Lee Campion, who was formerly audio-visual director for the St. Louis County Schools (Missouri), and more recently the educational television consultant for the NEA.

RELAX OR STUDY WITH AN NEA TRAVEL GROUP

The NEA Division of Travel Service has found that teachers vary tremendously in the type of travel experience they want. Some teachers just want to relax and see the sights, hear the sounds, and taste the foods of foreign climes. Other teachers want to get a deeper understanding of the countries through which they travel. In order to serve all teachers, the NEA educational travel program encompasses both types of experiences. This distinction between travel for relaxation and travel for more serious purposes is clearly evident in the written descriptions of its various travel projects. These written descriptions are printed in the 1961 *NEA Travel Book*, a 48-page brochure which is free upon request to the Division of Travel Service, National Education Association, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W., Washington 6, D. C.

HAVE YOU READ?

From the November 1960 magazine *Overview*: "Language Labs: An Agonizing Reappraisal" (pp. 45-47), "Four Definitions of Your Job" by Van Miller (pp. 50-51), and "New Patterns in Educational Staffing" (pp. 52-55); from the December 1960 issue of *Nation's Schools* the article, "On the Shelf

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with James M. Spinning" (p. 28); from the November 1960 magazine *School Management*: "How To Improve Instruction with Teaching Teams" by Robert G. Andree (pp. 50-54, 114), "Why Do Our Schools Cost So Much?" (pp. 67-82), "Are Your Schools Doing a Good Job?" by Richard F. DeForest (pp. 61-63), "Is Your District Doing All It Can with Tape Recordings?" (pp. 58-60, 116), "Five Superintendents Plan a Junior High School" (pp. 88-100), and "Middle School for Tomorrow" (pp. 101-109); from the Autumn 1960 issue of *The School Review*: "Unhinging the High-School Principals" by Conrad Briner (pp. 318-28), "Secondary Education: A Model for Improvement" by Lawrence W. Downey (pp. 251-65), "Educational Technology—Boon or Bane?" by John Fritz (pp. 294-307); the 14 pages (pp. 17-30) devoted to the English Language Arts in the December 1960 issue of the *NEA Journal*; *The Gifted Student* (Research Monograph No. 2 of the U.S. Office of Education) and "Research in Grammar and Usage and Its Implications for Teaching History" in the September 1960 issue of the *Bulletin of the School of Education*, Indiana University.

THE HIGH COST OF JUNIOR STATUS

A brief startler in the "All About You" column of the current *Coronet* gives a new reason for high-school students' quitting. Not grades or emotional disturbance alone, but the expense of keeping up. An Oregon survey shows that class rings, club dues, tickets, proms are financially impossible for many, and their "left-out" feelings become "drop-out" feelings. December 1960 *Coronet*

RECOGNITION FOR SCHOLASTIC ACHIEVEMENT

In the fall of 1959 the North Adams School Committee made budgetary provisions for recognition of scholastic achievement by Drury High School students. Conferences with Drury High School Principal Stephen J. Drotter resulted in the following: Effective with the 1959-1960 school year special recognition would be given to students who averaged 90%, or better, for the school year. Recognition would be in the form of a whipcord jacket with a suitable crest for freshmen, sophomores, and juniors, and a statuette for seniors. For the first year, seniors could have a choice between a jacket and a statuette. Thereafter, it would be a statuette. Students repeating the achievement of a 90% or better average would receive pin awards. However, repeating as a senior merits a statuette. A student qualifies for a jacket only once.

At the close of the last school year, 57 students qualified for the recognition awards. This exceeded the school's estimate. There were 16 seniors, 18 juniors, 10 sophomores, and 13 freshmen. At a special assembly, these students received individual notices of their honor. Eight seniors chose statuettes, while the other eight chose jackets. Seniors received their awards during the summer. The remainder of the students were measured during the summer. At a recent special assembly, with the Mayor and Superintendent of Schools present, these jackets were distributed.

The whipcord jackets are bright, deep blue in color with white piping. On the breast pocket is a crest with a blue background and a border in white silk. Inside the border is a block D in white silk. Within the D is the educational lamp of learning in white silk. Over the D is Drury High School and below it, Scholarship. These also are in white silk.

Another innovation was the discontinuation of announcing a valedictorian and salutatorian in June 1960. All students whose average for four years is

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EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION: THE SECONDARY SCHOOL

by John E. Corbally, Jr., W. Frederick Staub, and T. J. Jenson—all of The Ohio State University

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The book is divided into four basic parts: The Job, The Task Areas, The Man, and The Challenge, and organized in a sequential pattern. A few of the topics covered are the historical background of the secondary school, an analysis of leadership, and such specific areas as personnel, management, and community relations.

The authors emphasize the involvement of the administrator in the total administrative process. Many real situational incidents and problems illustrating this involvement have been included.

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90%, or better, are honored instead. These students are awarded honor plaques, with their names engraved along with the honor, school, and year.—Drury High School, North Adams, Massachusetts

FERMENT IN THE TEXTBOOK INDUSTRY

Textbook sales for 1959 totaled \$326,000,000. For 1960, the figure will be higher. Wall Street also believes that textbook publishing today is a depression and recession-proof industry. That accounts for the fact that textbook publishing has been making big news in the financial pages of the press. Mergers and the public sale of stock previously held by private families have been the two industry trends.

Crowell-Collier acquires a controlling interest in the Macmillan Company. Random House acquired the L. W. Singer Company. Harcourt, Brace put its stock on the open market and also acquired World Book in a stock-exchange arrangement. The Meredith Publishing Company, publisher of *Better Homes and Gardens*, announced it would acquire Appleton-Century-Crofts. The action that started the financial ferment was the merger of Henry Holt and Company, John C. Winston and Rinehart and Company, into the \$35,000,000 giant of Holt, Winston, and Rinehart. Meanwhile, Scott-Foresman and Ginn, two concerns hitherto controlled by private families, announced that their stock is now in the public market.

TEACHERS NEED LIBRARY TRAINING

Training of teachers in the use of libraries and audio-visual materials is woefully inadequate, the American Association of School Librarians claims in a letter sent to professional associations and agencies representing 1,100 teacher-training institutions throughout the nation. A survey made by the National Education Association in 1958 showed that only 13.1% of 1,448 teachers who participated in the survey had received instruction in the role and function of the school library as a definite part of their professional training.

A letter from Miss Elizabeth Williams, AASL President, was sent as a result of a resolution adopted by the AASL, a division of the American Library Association and a department of the NEA. This resolution, adopted at the ALA annual conference held in Montreal, urged a basic program of instruction in the use of libraries and instructional materials for teachers and administrators. The letter states in part: "Although many schools already include such courses as electives in the curriculum—and are to be commended for doing so—the AASL takes the position, in view of this critical situation, that all teacher-training institutions should offer such courses."

EUROPEAN TRAVEL STUDY PROGRAM

Wayne State University's College of Education and Graduate Division again approve credit arrangements in connection with the 14th Annual European Travel Study Program in Comparative Education. Personally directed by Dr. Wm. Reitz, Professor of Education, the group will leave Detroit on June 24 and return on September 1, 1961. Encompassing 13 countries during the 10 weeks' journey, this program is designed to provide teachers, students, and other professional people with opportunities to survey selected highlights of the life and culture of Western Europe. Special highlights of the 1961 program include an Adriatic and Aegean cruise visiting ports of Greece and Turkey: Corfu, Athens, Mykonos, Delos, Istanbul, Bosphorus, Troy, Rhodes, Crete,



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NEW CHEMISTRY FILMS

Four new top quality 16mm chemistry films are now available for immediate preview and purchase. Here is animation and photography by outstanding artists and technicians in the film world. These films have been written and produced for classroom use in collaboration with the Manufacturing Chemists' Association, Inc., and superior chemists, chemistry teachers, and educators. These films are available for purchase under Title III of the National Defense Education Act of 1958.

The films in this series are: *Chemistry of Water* (14 minutes), *Oxidation-Reduction* (16 minutes), *Combustion* (14½ minutes), and *Chlorine—A Representative Halogen* (15 minutes). They are available for preview and possible purchase from Sutherland Educational Films, Inc., 201 North Occidental Blvd., Los Angeles 26, California. Each of these four films are 16mm, sound, and color and are prepared for use with students in grades 9 to 12 and college level. The *Combustion* film is also usable in grade 8. The sale price is \$1.50 each.

SCIENCE ADVENTURE FILMSTRIPS

Magnetism and Electricity is a new set of four filmstrips in color, by Film-strip House, 432 Park Avenue, South, New York 16, New York, for the middle grades. Individual titles are: “Magnetism,” “The Nature of Electricity,” “Chemical Energy and Electricity,” and “Mechanical Energy and Electricity.” The central theme of the new set is that electricity is energy based on electrons and protons. Each filmstrip develops one aspect of this theme.

Also available from the same source is *Astronomy*, another set of four filmstrips in color for middle grades. Individual titles are: “The Sun,” “The Planets,” “The Moon,” and “The Stars.” Each of the two sets as well as another set entitled *Weather* is accompanied by a teacher's outline and guide. Each set may be purchased for \$20; individual filmstrips (titles) are \$5 each.

DISCOVERING SCHOLASTIC STRENGTH AND WEAKNESSES

A technique to help teachers pinpoint scholastic strengths and weaknesses of pupils compared with national samples of students has been developed by Science Research Associates, 259 East Erie Street, Chicago 11, Illinois. Termed *Item Analysis in the Classroom*, the new technique is offered as a useful supplemental service in conjunction with the SRA Achievement Series of integrated tests for grades 4-6 and 6-9. The series measures educational development of pupils in such curricular areas as reading, language, arithmetic, and



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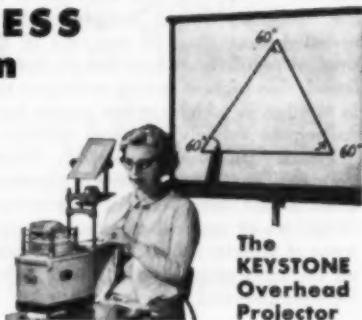
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study skills. Item analysis identifies skills in which a class is strong or weak in comparison with students in the sample group. A teacher who performs an item analysis gains concrete and definite data on which to build instruction to best meet the needs of pupils. Also by item analysis, administrators can modify or amplify the curriculum to implement the important services of teachers.

TEENAGE ASSOCIATION OPPOSES DRAG RACING

From the heart of Dixie, Mike McClannahan, president of the Georgia Teen-Age Traffic Safety Association and delegate to the second National Student Traffic Safety Conference, and John Baker, former chairman of the executive board of the Georgia Association, took action against the rising incidence of drag-race deaths. These safety-conscious Georgians drafted the following statement and sent it to the *Atlanta Journal*, which printed it:

"The Georgia Teen-Age Traffic Safety Association, in conjunction with its sponsoring agencies and affiliated organizations, vehemently reprimands any and all forms of supervised or unsupervised drag racing, hot rodding, or any other form of reckless driving which is a direct detriment to the safety of others. We strongly recommend that the Georgia Department of Public Safety, local law enforcement officers, judicial administrators, and governmental authorities take all necessary action needed to curb such serious and direct violations of the law. Furthermore, our Association will directly back up and approve any measure passed or issued by state authorities in order to put an end to those dangers."—*NSTS Tips and Cues*

TEENAGE SMOKERS

The November 1960 issue of the *Journal* of the Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation, an NEA department reports a study by the American Cancer Society of 22,000 Portland Oregon, teenagers which revealed more than 25 per cent of the boys and 13½ per cent of the girls smoked regularly at least once a week. The percentage of smokers, the study found, was highest among teenagers in which both parents smoked, and lowest in families in which neither parent had been a smoker. Also boys who did not participate actively in school athletics were more inclined to smoke.

Primary purpose of the study, however, was to discover which educational approach was most effective in persuading youngsters not to smoke. Just saying *don't* wasn't too effective. Nor were youngsters particularly impressed with reminders of such ill effects as stained teeth, unattractive breath, or impairment of athletic skills. The best technique, it appeared, was to give youngsters all the facts about the long-term risks of smoking—the threat of lung cancer, for example—and then leave it up to them to make the final decision.

TEENAGERS BACK 10 P.M. CURFEW FOR THOSE UNDER 16

A surprisingly large majority of teenagers favor a 10 P.M. curfew law for those under 16 years of age. In the latest Institute of Student Opinion poll, conducted by *Scholastic Magazines*, 58.1 per cent of more than 11,000 teenagers across the country said they favored such a curfew; 36.5 per cent were opposed; 5.4 per cent had no opinion. By an even larger margin, teenagers said that they thought such a curfew would help to cut down juvenile delinquency. Some 61.3 per cent of those polled said that J.D. would be reduced by a curfew. Thirty per cent said they didn't think so, and 8.7 per cent had no



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opinion. Teenage girls were much more united on the curfew than the boys, though many of the boys admitted grudgingly that a curfew might well be effective in curbing delinquency.

PLANET EARTH FILM SERIES

The National Academy of Sciences announces the completion of its *Planet Earth* film series. Produced under a grant from the Ford Foundation, it embraces thirteen 16mm 27-minute educational films, available in both color and black-and-white, covering the principal fields of geophysical research which have been stressed in connection with the International Geophysical Year.

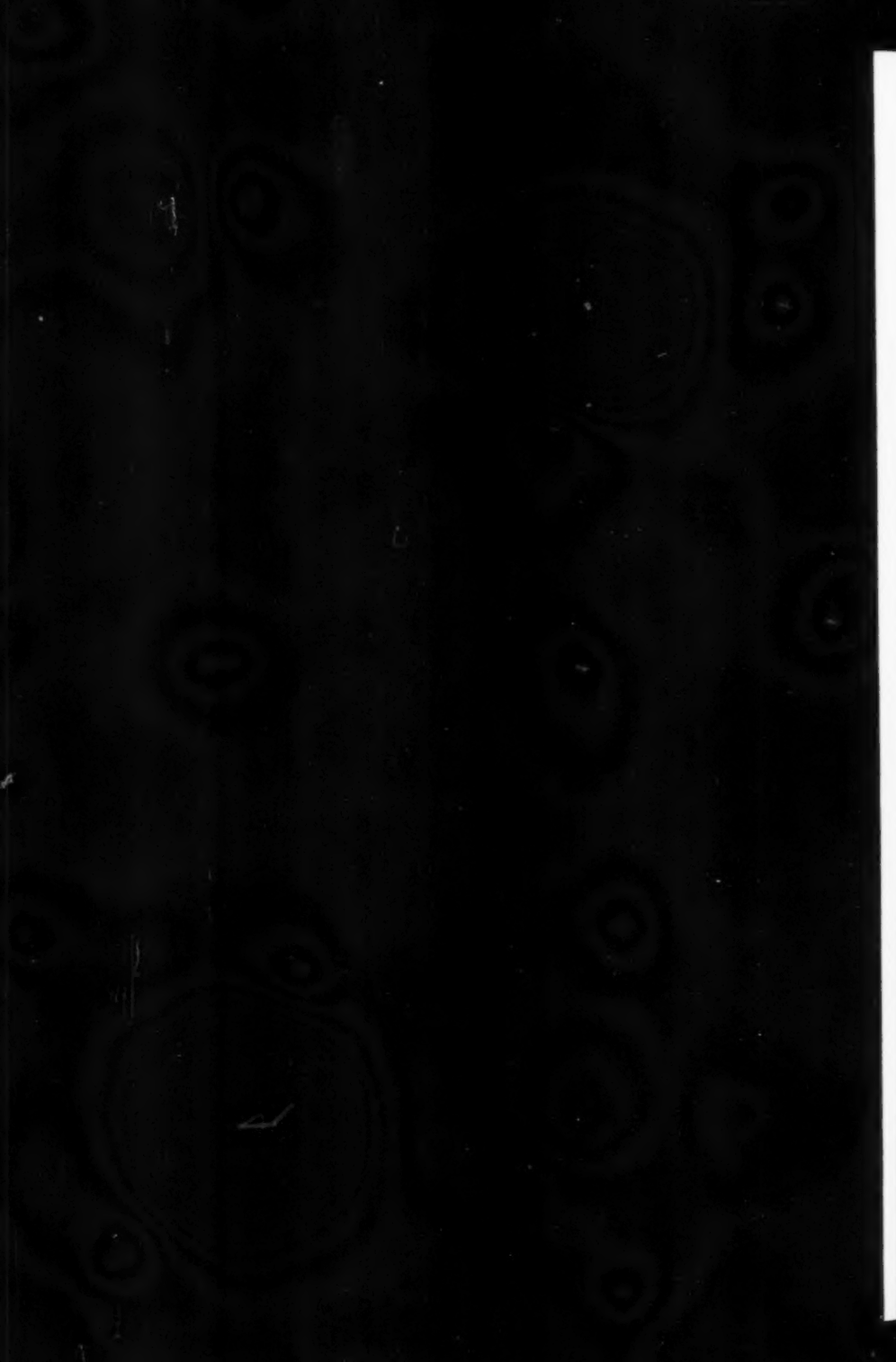
The film series, the first produced by the Academy, originated in the interest of students, teachers, and the general public in the International Geophysical Year. The films synthesize man's knowledge of his physical environment, and also delineate newly developed and powerful tools for gathering data on space and the cosmos, such as rockets and satellites. Extensive film footage was shot for the series in all parts of the world both during and after the International Geophysical Year, thus providing the viewer the stimulus and interest of field work both at home and in distant places.

Although the inspiration for the program came from the IGY, the films give a rounded picture of man's quest for knowledge in each field, outlining the principal discoveries and ideas and raising questions that still challenge science both as regards the cosmos and the earth itself. The content, in any given field, while utilizing the striking results of the IGY, ranges from early to present-day ideas and experiments, with some projection into the future. Art and iconography are used to present ancient and early notions.

Of the thirteen films, three are devoted to the solid earth: "The Hidden Earth" (seismology), "The Shape of the Earth" (geodesy), "The Force of Gravity." Three others explore the interface environment between the solid earth and the high atmosphere: "The Inconstant Air" (weather and climate), "Secrets of the Ice" (glaciology), and "Challenge of the Oceans" (oceanography). Seven films are concerned with the upper atmosphere and space: "Our Nearest Star" (the sun and solar activity), "The Flaming Sky" (aurora), "Magnetic Force" (the earth's magnetic field), "Radio Waves" (including the ionosphere and radio astronomy), "Cosmic Rays," "Research by Rockets," and "Science in Space" (satellite and space-probe research).

The Academy has concluded an agreement with the McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., to provide for distribution of the film series. In accordance with this agreement, McGraw-Hill will distribute the films, either severally or in sets, both in the United States and abroad, to educational and research institutions at a price of \$80 for the black-and-white prints, and \$150 for the color prints. The entire series is now available for preview at the McGraw-Hill Text-Films, 330 West 2nd Street, New York, New York.





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